

Stakeholder Perceptions of a Civic Education Program
at an International School in Europe

A Dissertation
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
BY

Christopher Swift

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Advisors:
Dr. Deanne Magnusson
Dr. Gerald Fry

[June, 2017]

Acknowledgements

This has been a very interesting experience for me. I have had the opportunity to study and learn from great researchers such as Dr. Magnusson, Dr. Fry, Dr. Paige, Dr. Avery, Dr. Furco, Dr. DeJaeghere, Dr. Stout, Dr. Park and Dr. Shirazi. All have contributed in some form to my knowledge and research potential and I would like to thank them for their effort and patience in aiding my learning trajectory. Dr. Magnusson has been probably the most stalwart, hard working and intelligent woman I have met in my life (next to my wife and her mother). She directed my learning in ways that I could not imagine. I will never forget how every time I would turn in work (for my dissertation or for a class); she could read my writing and within a few minutes give me succinct and exact criticism that would always be right. Her retirement from the University of Minnesota is a very sore loss, as her influence will be missed by the new cohorts. Dr. Fry was also instrumental in my learning. In particular, I could not have remained focused and encouraged as much as virtually every conversation I had with him. He always gave compliments and encouraging words that kept my battery going (and often recharged!). His motivation was critical, as at times life would try to overtake my work at the University of Minnesota. His humility has also been very catchy as I find myself trying to mimic some of that behavior. He is another person that I could not have gone without in this program.

I have also had a very fortunate past research experience. In particular, two professors at Boston University, Dr. Theophylactou and Dr. Chang were academic mentors that helped facilitate my preparation to be ready to undertake this arduous task. They both have been instrumental in my political science interest and research work. Dr. Echols, Dr. Jasso, Dr. Thompson and Dr. Riggins at Lee University, were critical in helping me gain a foothold in education as well as helping me understand how life works in general. In particular, Dr. Echols took me under her wing and provided me with very helpful advice, especially in a time that was quite difficult.

Two additional highly respectable people must be mentioned in this acknowledgement phase, which are my parents-in-law, the Piccillos. General and Dr. Piccillo have been the reason that I had time to work on my studies and were instrumental in providing me with practical life advice and free childcare. My work would have been incomplete without their encouragement and care.

Finally, there is one more person that I have to acknowledge in terms of this dissertation. That is, my father, Major, Bishop G. Christian Swift. He has always demonstrated a certain excellence in his handling of work and life matters. Unconsciously this has influenced my behaviors as well as curiosity for all things. My uncles, William, Justin and Theodore Swift refer to this as the "Swift Curiosity" trait. I could not have gained this degree without my father's influence and guidance as well as support from my family, Peter and Kathy Swift and Leroy and Christina Carter.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my three favorite women that made all the difference in my life. The first woman was my mother. She was the reason I decided to study the educational sciences and is the reason that I have been able to complete a dissertation at the University of Minnesota in education. She encouraged me when I did not see a future in teaching and mentoring younger pupils. While she is missed every day, her words of wisdom have guided my life choices perpetually.

The second woman is my wife, Dr. Giulia Piccillo who spent the first half of my life reminding me about the importance of scholarship, research and hard work. It is because of her input, trust and patience that I have been able to complete this major undertaking. She is the one that sat with me for hours and helped me prepare for the Graduate Record Exam and always encouraged my professional endeavors. She taught me one very important lesson that education is much like the stock market. An initial investment in one's education can bring major returns later on in life. Thankfully, much like the stock market, I also learned that if I did not invest early, then later (with more effort) I could still attain some returns. I am the most fortunate to have her in my life.

Finally, Sara Swift, my little girl is the reason that I work hard. I often look at her and wonder about the beauty of growing up and learning things for the first time. She reminds me on a daily basis that learning is fun and can have an impact on anyone. She is my reason to be a lifelong learner.

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to discover stakeholder perspectives of the civic education program at an international school in Europe. The research questions were: (1) how do the stakeholders define civic education, (2) how do the stakeholders describe the civic education program and (3) what are the intended outcomes of this program.

Five school administrators, five teachers and eleven students were interviewed for this single case, qualitative study. Study findings indicate that the majority of stakeholders interviewed wanted a participatory civic education program, which included international interaction and community civic engagement. Based on the study results, a participatory civic education model was created for this international school. That model consists of four components; curriculum development, service-learning, character education and administrative support. Of those components, several sub components are included such as global citizenship representing a sub component of character education. Goals have also been developed in order to help guide the school towards the final objective of a *participatory* civic education program.

Given the dramatic growth in international schools worldwide, it would behoove other international schools to construct a civic education program at their school for the benefit of student learning and student global mindedness development.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	i
Dedication.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
List of Appendices	viii
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures.....	x
Chapter One: Context, Background, and Rationale for the Study	1
Problem Statement.....	2
The need for civic education.....	2
Globalization as accelerating interconnectivity	2
Demographic challenges	4
Dwindling School Resources	5
Youth Disinterest in Politics	5
Time for Civic Education.....	6
Context of the Study	8
The International School.....	8
Significance	10
Purpose of the Study	11
Research Questions.....	11
Definitions	12
Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks	16
Conclusion	17
Chapter Two: The Evolution of Civic Education	18
Introduction.....	18
History of Civic Education	18
Need for Civics	20
Restructuring Civic Society	20
Culture Change	22

	v
Disagreement on Civic Education Timing	24
The Merits of Secondary Civic Education	25
Civic Education.....	26
Genres of Civic Education	27
Civic Education Explained	30
Civic Education in its Infancy.....	30
Civic Education Instruction	31
Service-Learning.....	32
Leadership.....	34
Other Issues.....	35
International Civic Education	35
European Civic Education	37
Civic Education in International Schools.....	38
Culture Export via Civic Education.....	39
Military Community	41
Summary	42
Chapter Three: Methodology and Methods	43
Introduction.....	43
Purpose of the Study	43
Research Questions.....	43
Methodology	44
Qualitative Research	45
Constructivist Study.....	46
Research Design	47
Location Selection	47
Community	47
Data Collection Procedures.....	48
Data Analysis Procedures	48
Interviews.....	49
Participant Selection Procedure	51
Participants.....	52
Interview Analysis	55

	vi
Instrument	55
Budget and Timeline.....	56
Single Case Study	56
Interviews.....	57
Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Results	58
Introduction.....	58
Interview Aggregation of Each Participant Group	58
Students.....	58
Civic Education Program.....	59
Civic Knowledge	60
Civic Participation	60
Comparative Civic Values	62
Civic Attitudes	65
Teachers	65
Civic Education Program.....	66
Civic Participation	66
Comparative Civic Values	68
Civic Attitudes	70
Administrators.....	70
Civic Education Program.....	71
Civic Knowledge	72
Civic Participation	72
Comparative Civic Values	73
Civic Attitudes	75
Comparing Similar Grouped Responses	75
Comparing Group Responses	76
Chapter Five: Implications for Practice, a Model of Participatory Civic Education	81
Implications for Practice	81
Participatory Civic Education Program	81
Model for Civic Education.....	82
Core Components.....	83
Character Education.....	84

Global Citizenship	85
Service-Learning.....	87
Curriculum Development.....	89
Administrative Support.....	90
Educational Leadership	90
Quality Assurance	92
Limitations and Delimitations.....	95
Future Research	96
International School Civic Education Models	96
Sample Framework of a Participatory Civic Education Program	97
Global Citizenship and Civic Education.....	98
Global Service-Learning	99
Conclusion : Final Reflections.....	100
References.....	101

List of Appendices

Appendix A - Interview Questions 112

Appendix B - Letter to interviewees 114

Appendix C- Consent Form 115

List of Tables

Table 1 - All stakeholders	75
Table 2a - Teachers	75
Table 2b - Administrators	76
Table 2c - Students and administrators	76
Table 2d - All stakeholders	76

List of Figures

Figure 1- Sample Civic Education Model.....	98
Figure 2 - School Power Structure.....	118
Figure 3 - Conceptual Framework	119

Chapter One: Context, Background, and Rationale for the Study

"Education ... like democracy, is always in the making, forever incomplete, founded in possibilities."

Maxine Greene (Paoletti Philips, 2006)

The importance of civic education to maintain civilization has been recognized since early philosophers began envisioning an ideal society (Sundberg, 2008). As a result, civic education is the vehicle used to maintain a nation's vitality (Sundberg, 2008). Patrick believes that the duty of the state (in the words of the founding fathers) is to "provide ordered liberty, prevent majority tyranny and protect private rights" (Patrick, 2008, p. 2). It is quite clear that a healthy democracy also needs interested citizens for its democratic vitality. Therefore, civic education is a necessity to teach citizens about their rights and for a democracy to function well. Many believe that the preparation of people for civic life in the form of civic education should naturally fall upon the education system (Boyer, 1990). Justice Earl Warren stated during the seminal case of *Brown vs. Board of Education* in 1954 that education is the foundation of good citizenship. He suggested that good citizens were the derivations of a healthy education system.

Many researchers believe better educated individuals equal a more civically active society. This civically active population ultimately creates good citizens which are beneficial to society (Dee, 2004; Flanagan and Levine, 2010; Kahne and Middaugh, 2008; Brand, 2010).

Research has demonstrated, however, that students at present are less interested in civic engagement than previous generations (Billig, 2004; HSSSE, 2005; Kahne & Westheimer, 2014). This causes one to wonder if present civic education is addressing students' needs in terms of fostering a civic curiosity. Furthermore, Billig (2004) notes that young people feel that they cannot make a difference in their communities nor have a meaningful impact on government or

politics. Putnam also indicates in his research that a higher percentage of the present electorate is less likely to vote than previous generations (Henn and Foard, 2014). This number is still in decline (Putnam, 1995).

Problem Statement

The need for civic education

At present, there is need for an increased focus on civic education (Galston, 2001). This is due to social evolutions such as globalization (Selby, 1994; Takaks, 1999; Morley, 2000), emerging demographic changes (Shreshta & Heisler, 2011), dwindling school resources (Soule, 2008) and a growing youth disinterest in politics (Dudley & Gitelson, 2003; Galston, 2004; Bos, Williamson, Sullivan, Gonzalez & Avery 2007; Cogan & Dericott, 2014).

Globalization as accelerating interconnectivity

Globalization is an ongoing, modern phenomenon that is changing the way citizens of most nations view the world and interact with each other. Increasingly, countries are becoming more demographically heterogeneous in terms of national origin including first, second and third generation citizens (Van Der Bly, 2007). As a result of the increasing number of ethnically diverse people, citizens are left without clear definitions of their national fidelity (Bakhtiari & Shajar, 2011) and what their civic responsibilities are towards another and how they should posture themselves abroad as citizens of their nation (Takaks, 1999; Morley, 2000). Some educational experts suggest that educational systems must adopt a more "globalized civic education curriculum" to help citizens cope with global influences (Myers, 2006; Banks, 2008; DeJaegher, 2009; Oxley & Morris, 2013; Cogan & Dericott, 2014; Banks, 2015). This has been conceived as many in the United States grapple with the ever-increasing contact with non-Americans, which is nurtured by globalization (Morley, 2000). That idea has many merits,

especially given that it could help create an inclusive learning environment for new citizens of the United States and for nationals coping with the influence of global cultures. Global civic education also addresses a potential "ripple effect" of policies in the US (Lane, 2005). This means that whatever changes happen in America, could affect other countries. In terms of civic education, Dorf (2008) suggests people should be made aware of their "global community" and how domestic policies could affect other people around the world.

A global citizenship model addresses some social issues, but it does not address a citizen's understanding of their national civic responsibilities or for their nation's place in the world according to Biesta (2008). It also does not address how democratic nations culturally interpret democracy (Johnson, 1984, p. 73). For example, in the United States there is a "presidential democracy" whereas in countries such as France and the UK there are "parliamentary democracies" (Kaiser, 1997) and Turkey has "Political Islam" (Toros, 2010). Different forms of government cause for dissimilar interpretations of what civic responsibilities are for each citizen (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001). This is why it is important for a nation to develop a national and culturally appropriate understanding of civics, which is at the heart of a civic education curriculum. According to Dale and Robertson (2002), this should include a global civic education model, but only to the point of being more interculturally inclusive in order to create responsible citizens. Biesta (2008) states, "Responsible citizens are depicted as individuals who have 'respect for others' and a 'commitment to participate responsibly in political, economic, social and cultural life' and who are able to 'develop knowledge and understanding of the world and Scotland's place in it'" (Biesta, 2008, p. 38). Similarly, responsible citizens in the United States should also develop civically active behavior, knowledge of the world and how the U.S. is positioned socially and economically in a global sense. This defined thinking of being a U.S. citizen abroad whether on vacation or for work helps U.S. citizens to understand how they should posture their intercultural behavior and is

even more appropriate in terms of demographic changes with the influx of immigrants (Shreshta & Heisler, 2011).

Demographic challenges

Demographics in terms of majority and minority populations are projected to change in many western nations, for example in the United States (Shreshta & Heisler, 2011). Historically, most research on minority to majority comparisons has been on the educational attainment differences between African-American and Caucasian students, with neglect of the Hispanic population (Clayton, 2011). The Hispanic (or Latino) population of the United States, however, is expected to grow to 30.2 percent of the total populace by 2050. This figure includes first and second generation Hispanics (Shreshta & Heisler, 2011). In 2050, it is also expected that half of all students will be of Hispanic origin (Portes & Smagorinsky, 2010). According to Avery (2007), "far less research has examined the way in which immigrants' conceptions of citizenship in the United States are integrated with their previous experiences as citizens of another country" (Avery, 2007, p. 26). One can extrapolate from this that the upcoming demographic change means that the increased population diversity in the United States has an impact on the allegiance of new and established citizens (Flanagan & Levine, 2010). Other nations such as the United Kingdom and Germany are dealing with similar issues (Banks, 2008). Since 2015, the refugee crisis in Europe is also causing further demographic challenges for most European Union nations (Cini & Borrogon, p. 2, 2016). Therefore, the inclusion of counter narratives and intercultural understandings would be welcome in civic education programs to help all parties cope with the change in demographics (DeJaeghere, 2009).

Dwindling School Resources

Soule (2008) observed that there is a threat to non-traditional (e.g. social studies) school resourcing. Soule states schools are increasingly placing their emphases into areas directly related to math, engineering, technology and science. As a result, civics teachers are receiving fewer resources and support from school districts (Soule, 2008; Kahne & Westheimer, 2014). Westheimer and Kahne (2014) state that in 2003, federal spending on civic education "totaled less than one half of one percent of the overall department budget. This loss of funding and support in turn challenges U.S. civic education programs to meet the ongoing globalization demographic changes (Soule, 2008). The loss of resources in civic education could cause for a decrease in quality civic education thereby causing a drop in youth interest in community and politics (Soule, 2008).

Youth Disinterest in Politics

There are a number of forces affecting the youth's civic behavior. One of those forces is the youth becoming less civically engaged due to various social phenomena (Niemi & Smith, 2001; Dudley & Gitelson, 2003; Galston, 2004; Bos, Williamson, Sullivan, Gonzalez and Avery 2007). Furthermore, according to Billig (2004) and the HSSSE study (2005), another force is that the youth seem to have a lack of community interest and academic engagement (Billig, 2004; HSSSE, 2005). This is contrary to the 2008 election where the largest turnout of U.S. youth voters has shocked the traditional voting numbers for this group. This was not repeated in 2012. Researchers do not agree on why this happened. Therefore, this could be viewed as a one-time event (CIRCLE Staff, 2013). Researchers often perceive that less civic engagement is due to youth behavioral attitude changes. Flanagan and Levine (2010) have found that 21st Century youth exhibit fewer characteristics of citizenship (with the exclusion of volunteerism) than previous generations. They suggest that this is because the youth are maturing at a slower pace

than in previous years. As a result, the variables that traditionally have promoted individuals to become more active in civics are not present. Those variables such as fewer marriages, delayed childrearing and the absence of long-term jobs are a loss for society, potentially causing the incoming youth to be less politically active and civically minded (Flanagan & Levine, 2010).

Time for Civic Education

Given that there is a need for civic education, many researchers argue as to when the best time is to impart civic knowledge and skills to citizens. This usually focuses on when people learn best and most efficiently. Some civic education scholars have found that school is an ineffective place for people to learn about civic laws and duties (Cook, 1985). This belief, however, was primarily in the era before the 1980s and was because there was the belief that a person's social atmosphere formed their opinions at a greater level than school, thus making civic education through schooling not efficient (Cook, 1985). Present research contradicts these assertions (Galston, 2001; Torney-Purta, 2002; Sherrod, Torney-Purta & Flanagan, 2010). Sherrod, Flanagan, and Youniss state that it is best to teach young Americans about civics because it is still a time that their opinions can be influenced (Cogan, 1999; Sherrod, Flanagan, & Youniss, 2002; Dudley & Gitelson, 2003). In addition, Gutmann (1999) found that many schools already include civics in some form in their mission and vision statements in terms of their educational goals.

Finally, a recent survey by the CIRCLE (The Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement) Staff from Tufts University finds that there is a direct correlation between a student's exposure to civics coursework and their likelihood of knowing current information about government (CIRCLE Staff, 2013). Walling (2007) expands on this by making the statement that students that take civics courses are approximately ninety-two percent more likely to vote than those that do not. These same students display a proclivity for

government knowledge that is equal to that of older adults (CIRCLE Staff, 2013). Furthermore, the only time that many Americans have the opportunity to learn about their civic responsibilities is in high school (Kahne & Middaugh, 2008). This is before a crossroad happens at which they must decide to graduate high school, drop out (legally), take the GED or go on to higher education (Kahne & Middaugh, 2008). Additionally, this is a time when the cost of education is relatively free to individuals, making it an interesting time to reach students with civic courses (Kahne & Middaugh, 2008). Other researchers have found the upper secondary levels to be the prime time to instruct civics as they are maturing and have the opportunity to enact their experience through service-learning opportunities after school or eventually in higher education opportunities (Hart, Donnelly, Youniss & Atkins, 2007; McGuire, 2010). This is a natural setting where learning and community-engaged practices are combined, which is considered the optimum civic learning time by many researchers (Parker-Gwin & Mabry, 1998; McGuire, 2010).

A case study of a school helps illustrate the effect of present civic education efforts as well as expose potential areas that need addressing for future studies. An international school in Europe, which is operated in part by several government defense ministries, is used as the context for this study. This is because a number of different national education systems work in close proximity. This allows for an interesting view on how the cultures affect another in the civic education realm while exploring national civic curricula. This could be a further rich scenario because the students are children of different NATO affiliated nationals. They in essence already experience a heightened form of patriotism and civics as they are learning in facilities administered by their department/ministry of defenses. This is because they come into contact on a daily basis with government and civic issues.

Context of the Study

The International School

The international school examined in this study was established in the late 1960s by four "governing nations." This international school provides primary and secondary national sections situated in the Netherlands. The school consists of four national and one "international" sections, which represent British, German, Canadian, "international" (i.e. a conglomerate of other nationalities that are too few to be counted as a section) and the U.S. educational systems. All four of the national sections are charged with teaching their military and civilian members' children. These students arrive and depart daily from neighbouring nations from over five different military installations on the same school buses. The fifth "section" of the international school, the international section, is charged with coordinating the facilities, facilitating international cooperation, representing a loose group of other nations (such as Norway, Poland and Italy) and maintaining fluidity in daily operations. The international section also facilitates the learning of a small amount of international students (Anonymous, Personal communication, 2014).

Each national section is required by their governmental authorities to maintain (or exceed) a curriculum that is designed according to their national schooling system. At the elementary level, this means that three curricula (two North American and one British) are interwoven with the most demanding standard being used as the foundation of the teaching (this is different per subject area). At the secondary level, the North American sections work together to maintain a level of cooperation through integrating a few courses (as opposed to all the sections working closely together like the elementary section). This level of cooperation is minimal as both nations prescribe different educational standards thus making cooperation cumbersome. The British section does not maintain a secondary school and sends their secondary

level students to either boarding school or a local international school. The German section, on the other hand, is entirely decoupled from all other sections and operates autonomously (Anonymous, Personal communication, 2014).

The U.S. national social studies curriculum is one that has a civic education foundation (Anonymous, Personal communication, 2009). This is a major component of the international civic education program. This begins in pre-kindergarten when students are taught to "Live and Participate in a Community." By third grade, students are expected to "Understand Continuity and Change in Communities." In the eighth grade students learn "U.S. History and Geography: Growth and Conflict." The eleventh grade's standard for social studies is "United States History: Continuity and Change in the Twentieth and Twenty-First Centuries" and the twelfth grade is "U.S. Government." In other grades, there are other civic related topics infused in the curriculum such as "People Who Make a Difference", "Regions of the United States" and "World History" (several grades). All of those courses are examples of government and community based education according to McConnell (2007). Yet, this is only one national approach to civic education. How do all nations with a secondary representation experience the civic education program at the international school? This question and others are addressed by the ensuing research project.

The international school has several important service-learning and leadership programs. One such program is the Air Force and Army "Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps" (JROTC) program (Schaffer, Berman, Pickeral & Holman, 2001). While this is not a mandatory activity, many students do decide to join this program. At this school, this is approximately 10 percent of the student body, which includes most student nationalities (Sergeant of local JROTC, Personal Communication, October 10, 2014). Given the number of students participating in JROTC, it is a program that has relevance to this study. The purpose of JROTC is to "motivate young people to be better citizens" (Calderon, 2000). Given the inclusion of this program and its popularity

among students, it could be stated that the JROTC program is a part of civic education at this school. The international school also provides other non-mandatory, service- and experiential learning opportunities such as Model United Nations, Harvard Model Congress Europe, Junior Leadership Seminar, International Student Leadership Institute participation, National Honors Society and other programs. In addition, all national systems require students to graduate with some civic education given that they must take their nation's history and government courses. These courses are also offered in advanced placement options to students through the U.S. curriculum. Yet with all of these service- and experiential opportunities, after school programs and civics related coursework, there are still no data available on what effects these programs are having on teachers' instruction. What effect do the numerous cultures have on each other in terms of this international school's civic education program? One idea is to look at standardized testing and that the scores might tell us about students' understanding of civic issues. Yet standardized scores only give a snapshot of student understanding of a topic and could be considered not entirely reliable (Au, 2007).

Significance

The international school in question is an example of school where national education systems and their standards connect. There are few (if any) other schools that attempt to blend country specific educational standards. Furthermore, the students and teachers are in an atypical international school environment in that they primarily have educators that are nationally trained and not specifically educated for international schools (i.e. the qualifications for staff do not include international experience). In addition, international interdisciplinary coursework at the secondary level is minimal given that each section has its own national leadership and standards. Secondly, the study of military students is important because very little is known about the

children of military members (Esqueda, Astor & De Pedro, 2012). Finally, there is no evidence to what effect the civic education program at this international school is having on its students.

This study is focused on an international school and the affect that the civic education program has on its stakeholders. The school's mission statement is focused on creating good citizens. "... International School provides an engaging curriculum that empowers all students to be life-long learners in a global society" (Anonymous, Personal communication, 2014). While the civic education program is not something that is explicitly detailed in a document or verbally noted, many civic education components are a part of the coursework and extra-curricular activities at this international school.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to discover stakeholder perspectives of the civic education program at an international school in Europe.

Research Questions

Some important questions that are answered through this research are:

How do the stakeholders define civic education? (a) What are the differences and similarities in stakeholder perspectives? (b) How do the perspectives align with the civic education literature?

How do the stakeholders describe the program? (a) What are the differences and similarities in stakeholder perspectives? (b) In what ways do national perspectives influence stakeholder perspectives?

What are the intended outcomes? (a) Unintended? (b) What are some strengths as evidenced by the outcomes? (c) What are some opportunities as evidenced by the outcomes?

Definitions

To clarify the meaning of a number of concepts associated with this study, a list of concepts with their definitions follows:

- **Civic education** according to Cogan (1999) is defined as "programs taking place in schools that prepare young citizens for an active role in their communities in their adult lives."
- Cogan (1999) defines **citizenship education** as civic education including out-of-school experiences usually involving non-school institutions such as religious organizations, the media and community organizations. It is more expansive than school dominated civic education and is therefore not the focal point of this dissertation.
- **Civic responsibilities** is defined as active participation in the public life of a community in an knowledgeable, committed, and productive manner, with a focus on the common good (Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002).
- **Experiential Learning** is the process of learning through practice and is often defined as learning through contemplation of actions (Felicia, 2011).
- **Citizen** -The dictionary defines a citizen as a native registered or naturalized member of a state, nation, or other political community ("Citizen", 2015.). This definition is somewhat limited, however, as a person may be a citizen of a club, community or university. Furthermore, qualities that enhance society such as critical thinking and participatory citizenship could also be considered necessary citizen traits and are not a part of the dictionary definition (Schoeman, 2005). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, a citizen is defined as a member of a community.

- **Active civic participation** is defined as someone who contributes to society in a "tangible manner" such as voting, running for office, serving in government/military, volunteering for office, acting in a religious leadership capacity, writing an opinion article published in a magazine or volunteering for community service (Vogel & Leiprecht, 2006).
- The manner at which people participate in the life of a community with the intention of improving conditions for others or to help mold their community's future is referred to as **civic engagement** (Addler & Goggin, 2005).
- The **Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps (JROTC)** program instills values of citizenship, service to the United States, and personal responsibility to students in secondary school (Hanser & Robyn, 2000, p. 4). JROTC is a program that trains secondary students in the values of the military and provides them an opportunity to be part of a student social group.
- **Model United Nations (MUN)** is a simulation of the United Nations General Assembly, Security Council or other UN body, which places students into a situation where they must use diplomacy and negotiations to advance their agenda. In essence, students become ambassadors of UN member nations. They discuss current events while drafting resolutions, plotting strategies, negotiating with supporters and adversaries while resolving current conflicts (United Nations, 2001).
- **The Model United States Senate (MUSS)** was originally created by a group of political science majors at Goucher College. The MUSS has been envisioned to increase high school students' understanding of the U.S. legislative process and to encourage their political engagement. Each student is assigned to act as a senator and

debates legislation, attends party caucuses and participates in floor sessions (Goucher College Model United States Senate, 2012).

- **International Student Leadership Institute** is an organization created to increase a student's leadership aptitude. It is a program that intermingles U.S. and Canadian students and helps them to learn the skills of leadership and membership in task-oriented groups (International Student Leadership Institute, 2014).
- The **Junior Leadership Seminar** is a middle school civic education after school activity. This is a weeklong experience in which attendees participate in specialized leadership-based sessions. These sessions help students develop decision-making skills, leadership characteristics, time management, goal setting, fund raising, team building and intercultural skills (Instructional Specialist, Personal Communication, 2012).
- The **international school civic education program** is defined as a number of curricula and extra-curricular activities at the school. This is not a defined program, but one that is the combination of many different learning opportunities. The following are all a part of the program: At the secondary section of the international school, there are a number of civic related courses: U.S. History, U.S. History (AP), U.S. Government, U.S. Government (AP), Canadian History, Civics (Canadian), Canadian Geography, World Issues (A Geographic Analysis), Travel and Tourism (A Geographic Perspective), Street Law, Honors World History 9 and 10 and Junior Reserve Officers Training Core (level I through IV). There are also many extra-curricular opportunities for students such as Model United Nations, Model European Parliament, Model Harvard Congress Europe, Comenius Project, International

Student Leadership Institute, Junior Leadership Seminar and sports events with local national teams.

- The school **stakeholders** are defined as teachers, administrators and former students. These stakeholders hold many different nationalities, some holding more than one. The German, American, Norwegian, Dutch and Canadian nationalities are all represented within the stakeholder group.
- **Military children** are children of military members. They are taught in ordinary learning environments (i.e. not special schools with the military at the core of every activity).
- **Civic knowledge** is the (Schulz, Ainley & Fraillon, 2011) increasing sophistication of civic content knowledge and civic cognitive processes through wider policy and institutional processes that determine the shape of civic communities.
- **Civic participation** is often considered to (Schulz, Ainley & Fraillon, 2011) comprise three primary sub domains, which are decision-making (organizational governance and voting), influencing (debating, developing proposals and demonstrating) and community participation (volunteering, organizational participation and remaining informed).
- **Comparative civic values** (Engel, 2000) are defined as comparing different civic value systems (when a person places priorities into different areas than others to the benefit of their communities)
- **Civic attitudes** are the (Bringle & Steinberg, 2010) behavioral intentions to be involved in future community service, beliefs about skills and competencies and civic attitudes such as social justice and diversity.

- An example of **Global citizenship empathy** would be (Pennington, 2014) people that value diversity and interconnectedness.
- The **Debate Club** is a combination of different simulation options for students at the International School such as Model European Parliament, Model Harvard Congress and Model United Nations.
- **World Issues** is a course at the International School that is designed to provide students with an opportunity to explore global issues (and satisfies the Ontario curriculum).
- **Personal Finance** is a course that helps students explore various important life skills such as paying taxes, life planning (income distribution, paying for rent, etc.) and designing a career path.
- **Service-learning** is an educational strategy that includes the teaching and learning of civic responsibility by students. It integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection that enriches the learning experience while strengthening communities (Battistoni, 2017). Most importantly, however, the service should equally benefit the recipient and the provider. In other words, the "service enhances the learning and the learning enhances the service" (Furco, 1996).

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

This research project is inspired and guided by the framework Ecological Development (Bronfenbrenner, 1988), which is focused on an individual's intellectual and behavioral growth. This theoretical framework helps one see how individuals are impacted by five systems; microsystem (local environment influences such as family, peers, neighborhoods), mesosystem (interactions between microsystem, e.g. how experiences at home are related to school), exosystem (when the individual has no role in the experience, but they directly impact the

microsystems), the macrosystem (how a culture and society influence a person) and chronosystem (cumulative experiences over a person's lifetime e.g. divorce, birth of baby, death of relative). This theoretical framework is the inspiration for this project and directly linked to the research questions. Yet, the last two systems (macro and chronosystem) look to linkages at a higher level than this research project, so they will not be included in the conceptual framework. Therefore, the conceptual framework could be seen as the microsystem (e.g. teacher colleagues), the mesosystem (e.g. staff member's home life in relation to work life at the international school) and the exosystem (e.g. knowledge gained in a professional development course, which is utilized at work) all contribute to teacher, student and administrator perception of the international school's civic education program.

Conclusion

The literature suggests that civic education needs more interest from academics and politicians in order to remain effective. Fortunately, civic education is being recognized as important for preparing students to be active citizens.

The study of this international school is an instance where national curricula are intermingled causing for an interesting mix of schooling ideology. Findings from this study may help localize issues related to the civic education program and potentially provide more areas for research within the international school. The fact that the international school is enveloped in a government-oriented milieu makes its study interesting in terms of exploring particular aspects of civic education.

Chapter Two: The Evolution of Civic Education

Introduction

A literature review follows to help illustrate how civic education is practiced in different forms. This review also includes how civic education is applied to both national and international programs. First, the History of Civic Education section is an overview of how civic education evolved in the United States. The section dedicated to the Need for Civics answers the questions of why civics is important for society and the many opinion differences between civic education researchers. A global overview of how civic education is different by various institutions is the section labeled as International Civic Education. The proceeding section is a description of the Military Community.

History of Civic Education

Prior to 1916, civics has been primarily taught through the history curriculum. The first observance of a civic education curriculum in the United States was in 1916 by the National Education Association when they established the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education or CRSE (Cogan, 1999). This group found that there was a need to overhaul the secondary curriculum. The CRSE commission created a smaller unit; dubbed "The Civics Study Group," which focused on developing a civic education curriculum. This study group proposed that there should be a 9th grade level course called Community Civics. This course was to be a mixture of economics, government and the evaluation of social structures. This was suggested because many students left school after the 9th grade, thus making this academic year to be very important for all students to be exposed to civic education (Cogan, 1999). The second suggestion was to create a course for the 12th grade, which was labeled "Problems of Democracy." This course was to build upon the Community Civics and meant to

foster participatory citizenship in students (Jenness, 1990). The reason for this is because citizenship education (often considered a broader context than civic education) was the goal of the entire school as opposed to civic education which usually refers to some singular civic courses.

In 1918, a new document was created by the Civics Study Group, which suggested the inclusion of a citizenship theme as the overarching point of education in America. This was molded into a document referred as "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" (National Education Association, 1928). This, in essence, codified education as a means of creating citizenship sentiments among U.S. citizens and solidified the National Education Association's focus on civic education.

In modern times, a new push for expanding the role of civics in the classroom has occurred (Schneider, 1994). This is because of the perceived loss of attention for civic studies by placing more emphasis on math and science. The hope is that with the creation of civic educational standards that this important discipline will not be lost in the focus-changing environment of U.S. schools (Schneider, 1994).

People often confuse civic education with citizenship education. According to Cogan (1999), there is a difference between civic education and citizenship education (the latter is not used for this study). Civic education, according to Cogan, is primarily the formal coursework leading to the understanding of how government works. This includes courses such as Community Civics and Problems of Democracy (e.g. U.S. history). Those courses focus on the institutions, processes of government and symbols. The institutions (among others) would be Congress, Supreme Court while the processes would be defined as legislation, voting and checks and balances. The symbols would involve the anthem and flag and important actions of being a citizen such as taking an active role in the community (Cogan 1999). Citizenship education includes civic education and out-of-school experiences such as religious organizations,

community organizations and the media. It is much more "associationist" according to Parker (1996). While citizenship education is more encompassing, civic education is utilized as this study's primary research area because it is more akin to the curricular norm of schools.

Given this historical overview, a major question is to why civics is even important. Why should it be studied when there are many other types of foci available for schools? Finite resources can only support so many initiatives by schools. This is why a need for civics must be well documented and the benefits must be clear to policy makers and society as a whole.

Need for Civics

Aristotle once claimed in his book, *Politics*: "If liberty and equality, as is thought by some, are chiefly to be found in democracy, they will be attained when all persons alike share in the government to the utmost" (Branson, 1998). Aristotle believed that having citizens participate in politics was a very important aspect of ensuring a strong democracy. This means that denizens need to act in a self-governing style as opposed to acquiescently allowing the dictums of those in power to lead their lives. Civic education is about learning the ability of self-governance and is vital for a democracy to remain vibrant (Branson, 1998). This is why civic education is paramount to retain a strong society's belief in their civic institutions. This includes the society of the United States.

Restructuring Civic Society

Americans have some hurdles to overcome that are hampering their interest in becoming civically engaged. Barber (2012) gives five difficulties that must be overcome in order for society to increase civic engagement (thus stimulating more interest in civic education). Those six conditions are the (1) ideology of neo-liberalism and privatization (i.e. that government is bad and that companies are good). Barber uses many examples where government has been helpful to society such as through the funding of public education. (2) Multiculturalism is another difficulty

that society must overcome. It has at times been considered a threat (by some) to the U.S. way of life (Barber, 2012). In Barber's opinion, this should be changed to a strength as the many immigrants bring innovation, persevering attitudes and skilled labor. (3) Political polarization has been making U.S. politics convoluted for the regular citizen. Barber purports that people isolate themselves with technology causing groupthink. "Infotainment" news organizations such as Fox and NBC are driving this isolation "culture" even further. (4) Global interdependence should be kept in check so that democratic nations retain some sovereignty. Barber has found this to be a cumbersome ordeal as one change in government policies in one nation could ripple throughout the world affecting other countries. Finally, (5) the proliferation of inequality has been becoming a major problem for Americans. Some of the wealthy make four hundred times the national average income; others make four thousand times that number (Barber, 2012). Furthermore, Barber observes that the social and economic elite live in their own communal enclaves thereby losing their vision of what a typical U.S. family's life is like. He questions how any young citizen of the U.S. who views this happening could still give trust to the democratic political system. Barber believes that Occupy Wall Street Movement is an example of how the youth responds to the "economic elite." He believes that the U.S. political system needs to be "cleaned" in order to model good civil values to students (Barber, 2012).

Bahmueller also writes about problems with society's participation in civics. According to Bahmueller (1999), "civil society" is defined as autonomous and self-organizing associations of society. Furthermore, he suggests that society should continue to defend certain liberties such as religion, right to own property, speech, the press and personal freedoms. He cautions, however, in line with Barber, to the reader that it would seem that Western society has been moving towards a more "Eastern View" of civic values to where the average citizen simply will distrust all political activity and behavior (Eastern View could be attributed to the Communist era in Eastern Europe). Particularly, he expresses the opinion that there is a dearth of civic

knowledge and that more people should participate in political actions such as voting to overcome their cynicism of civic institutions (Bahmueller, 1999).

Bennett, Wells and Rank (2009) express that one of society's greatest ills is the inability of the youth to connect with the public. They believe that modern students (digital natives born after 1980), have: (a) a weak sense to participate in government, (b) prefer lifestyle politics (e.g. volunteerism, social activism and political consumerism), (c) mistrust media and politicians and (d) join loose networks for social action. Educators, according to their research, need to reach this digital audience with a number of strategies. Some of these are to explain how government works, demonstrate common history, discuss contemporary issues in the news, parse political messages with the students, teach them how to contact their representatives, understand the role of interest groups and parties and teach confidence in government and institutions (Avery, 2007; Bennett, Wells & Rank, 2009). Echoing the fact that the youth is disconnected from society, Bennett also finds that "Millenials" are twice more likely to vote on MTV than in an actual election (Bennett, 2008). Bennett with this research makes the case that there is a need for "digital strategies" to reach the "Millenails." Some digital strategies, however, have been explored by new research. Owen, Soule, Nairne, Chalif, House and Davidson (2011) completed a study that found that students that take civics courses are two times more likely to become digitally engaged for their preferred presidential candidate (Owen, et al., 2011). This interest should be harnessed and utilized for more civic engagement. Ultimately, this will help lessen some of the challenges presented by America's 21st century democracy.

Culture Change

Branson (2005) finds that there are civic education problems in 21st century democracies. In particular, she states that those that had received civic education instruction often prefer the system of direct democracy, which is a system that allows for more citizen

participation as opposed to a representative democracy. Branson (2005) feels that "membership organizations" (lobbyists) are causing the political landscape to become obfuscated. She cites a number of polls where participants were in political decision-making roles due to the mistrust of their representatives. Branson believes this was due to membership organizations taking over politics. Examples are the farmer and tobacco lobbyists. Branson uses this last example as a means of corralling people together through civic education (i.e. teaching them to take action to counter interest groups). She states that more robust civic education courses could help people feel less disenfranchised by politicians and consequently feel more empowered in terms of governing the nation. She envisions these courses to further teach more about direct democracy (Branson, 2005).

Flanagan and Levine (2010) find that the difficulty of some social classes and some races to participate in civic engagement are primarily due to a lack of education and resources. The researchers believe that civic education should be equally taught across all classes. An additional major problem, in Flanagan and Levine's opinion, is that the youth are involved less in civic matters at present than in past years (excluding community volunteerism). They find that this is because of a delay in responsibility as many people live longer bachelor lives and study for longer periods (i.e. higher education). Flanagan and Levine find, however, that this delay only lasts until people settle and then they become more involved in civic matters such as voting and city management (Flanagan & Levine, 2010).

Hanson and Howe (2011) have a different belief about the behavioral change in the youth. They believe the delay in behavior to be due to the fact that civic coursework is focused on aggregative democracy learning, which in their findings is too simplistic as it focuses primarily on how to get majority opinion to control legislation. They express that civic education should focus on deliberative democracy which states that citizens should deliberate on proposed laws (Hanson & Howe, 2011). As a result, they believe people feel left out of civic matters and

therefore become turned off to civics. Avery (2011) describes deliberation at a much larger scale through a ten-nation research project in which civic deliberation skills were taught across the globe. She finds that by teaching students a deliberative democracy model, students increase their empathy on a range of issues and they would also learn more as they enmesh themselves into the civic discussions led by their teachers. Avery concludes from that experience that deliberation should be taught in teacher education and civic education (Avery, 2011).

Disagreement on Civic Education Timing

There are some aspects of civic education, however, that are still controversial. Detractors often cite that civic education is not very effective if commenced by the age of secondary school (Pasek, Feldman, Romer & Jamieson, 2008). In fact, Dee theorizes that higher education and degree attainment increase the participation rate of adults in civics, therefore implying that civic education from high school might not be that effective (Dee, 2004). Brand furthers this by analyzing the likelihood of higher educated students to participate in civic activities. He finds that as the higher education training increases, so also does the civic behavior of students and eventually graduates (Brand, 2010). Furthermore, some researchers claim that students retain little civic education knowledge after high school with prior models of teaching civic education, e.g. without service-learning (Pasek, et al., 2008). While new research is showing that there are gains to be made from formal civic education, still few have analyzed the long-term effects of civic courses (Pasek, et al., 2008). An analysis evaluating Philadelphia public high schools from 2002 through 2003 is one of the few. In this analysis, an innovative battery of new civics courses for two semesters have been given to students. After the 2004 presidential election, the authors of this research (Pasek, et al., 2008) went back to those students to see who had participated in the presidential election of 2004. They found that those students that had experienced two semesters of civic education had reported greater self-efficacy for

political participation and this continued into political attentiveness and knowledge of candidate positions (Pasek, et al., 2008). In addition, increased voting occurs (in comparison to those that are not exposed to the civics courses). The findings of the researchers is that supplementary civic education programs such as Student Voices can increase political participation through self-efficacy and skills in researching media information following government and political happenings. This validates that an innovative civic education curriculum in secondary school is a positive undertaking (Pasek, et al., 2008). The researchers Kiouisis, McDevitt and Wu (2005) conclude that schools that teach courses about the news, discussions and information integration on opinion strength and political predispositions increase a student's political identity through civic awareness. This eventually causes students to be more active in the U.S. political system (Kiouisis, et al., 2005). Both studies (Pasek, et al., 2008) and (Kiouisis, et al., 2005) provide critical input in that students need a connection to the modern world with what they are learning, especially in the secondary environment.

The Merits of Secondary Civic Education

Along the same lines, Kahne and Middaugh (2008) review civic coursework to see at what age level it would be most effective in attracting students' interests as well as inform them of their rights. They believe that secondary school is the most important time as this is a crossroads for students as some students will decide to enter the workforce and others go to higher education. In addition, they feel that this time period is important as the coursework will be without cost to the student as the government handles secondary education funding (Kahne & Middaugh, 2008). In other words, most people would have access to civic education in school as opposed to other venues that include less of the overall population (e.g. higher education).

While there is some debate as to the role in civic education that schools should play, schools play an important part as it is seen in as the primary place where youth develop their civic

knowledge, skills and behaviors. Civic education, however, transcends the school's responsibility. It must also have support from politicians and society in general. In turn, democratic societies can flourish as they educate their populace in how to understand their public institutions and to be good citizens.

Civic Education

There is a major component of life that is important to citizens of all nations. They must understand how their society works in order to support the democratic institutions that control their lives. Many researchers believe that civic education is the vehicle to help society understand and take control of their democratic rights (Patrick, 2008). Avery (2007) states that people in essence need to be taught how to assert their rights and make use of and trust their civic institutions (with a healthy hint of skepticism, as some civic institutions are not to be trusted). Furthermore, Patrick believes that civics courses are an important element of informing citizenry of their rights and of their duty to protect their way of life. He suggests that there should be three central themes embedded in the curriculum. They are (a) providing ordered liberty, (b) preventing majority tyranny and (c) protecting private property. The author defines ordered liberty as the people of a given nation deciding to empower and regulate their own government in order to attain a satisfactory level of daily operations. The second aspect, preventing majority tyranny, is to avoid alienating minorities by allowing the majority to set the rules (Patrick, 2008). Finally, he says that the government should protect private rights and property. He posits that without these three core topics, society would eventually lose itself by the erosion of morals (Patrick, 2008). Therefore, it is important that the civic education literature is complete to where a definition of civic education could be found to help drive well-structured programs that create knowledgeable citizens.

Genres of Civic Education

Researchers do not agree on how to implement civic education programs in order to most effectively impact society. One view is from Boyte (2005). He suggests that ordinary citizens should be taught to be “active” participants in their democracy. Citizens should not only be voters, volunteers and consumers, however, they should be problem solvers and inventive in creating public goods through the medium of “public works” (Boyte, 2005). Public works are projects that will better society by connecting individual and institutional interests by inviting people to “make work more public,” collaborative and filled with public betterments (Boyte, 2015). Citizens should be involved in “public works” in order to gain an understanding of their community and develop an understanding of how they can operate in unity to be the change of their society. In other words, civic education should be directed towards creating citizens that take control of public problems and control their society's decision-making (Boyte, 2005). An example of a school that used Boyte's model is the Catholic Saint Bernard's High School in St. Paul, Minnesota. This school has been closed in 2009 due to the Great Recession (Boyte, 2008).

Dionne (2012) describes Etzioni's “communitarianism” as a civic education model that bases its support for society and its institutions above the state (government) and market. Bell (2001) suggests this about Etzioni's theory because central bureaucracies (government) lack the understanding of local cultures, identities, values and communities. Furthermore, Etzioni (2011) believes that denizens must come to agreement on central principals that serve their nation's common good. In other words, citizens should find an agreement to principles that all can follow a middle ground without any deferment to minorities. Examples would be national or military service, voting and obeying laws. Yet beyond those common good principles, there should be freedoms, which allow citizens to deviate therefore allowing for “subcultural” differences. This in effect, places local cultures at the forefront of society and government as a second rung in

society (Etzioni, 2011). The Maryland school systems has been using Etzioni's communitarianism work for some time (Branson, 2014). This is somewhat different from Banks (2008), which finds that civic education should prepare students for global citizenship. He states this because developing a global civic education focus allows for home cultures and languages of students from diverse backgrounds to help attain structural equality. Banks's ideal curriculum would include "transformative citizenship" which would help a student actualize values and moral principles beyond the national laws. This type of citizen would take action in supporting social justice even if this violates laws or governmental structures. This is different from Etzioni because Banks believes that cultural understanding is paramount to society as opposed to Etzioni's common good principles that are equal to everyone (Banks, 2008). It has been difficult to find a school implementing the model suggested by Banks. I have found none.

Noddings views civic education from a different perspective. She believes that civic education should be formulated with character education in mind. Namely, she suggests that most societies begin character education in an Aristotelian manner. Fables, stories and traditions are taught to children in order to help them gain an understanding of society, their upbringing and life as in the time of Aristotle. Noddings (1997) believes that this is the natural manner at making people understand their community and ultimately society. Furthermore, the character education can serve multiple purposes. It could portray values by a society, while simultaneously instructing a student in scientific or mathematical literature (Noddings, 1997). Noddings work does not, however, account for differences in sub-cultures, which both Etzioni and Banks address.

Some researchers, however, do not define what they perceive as the best form of civic education, but attempt to define what most school systems have implemented as their civic education models. Westheimer and Kahne (2004) formulate the three most prevalent types of civic education programs in schools. Those are the (a) personally responsible civic education program: this student is taught to be responsible in the community (e.g. pick up litter), pay taxes,

obey laws and help those in needs (e.g. flood relief). A personally responsible citizen may also contribute food or time to food banks or volunteer (e.g. soup kitchen). The desired outcomes of this civic education style are personal responsibility and character education through the development of honesty, integrity, self-control and productiveness. CHARACTER COUNTS! is an example of an organization that attempts to develop a personally responsible citizen (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). The (b) participatory citizen is meant to operate actively in civic affairs and the social life of the community at local, state and national levels (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Students in this type of civic education program learn about how government and institutions (e.g. church) work. The pupils learn to focus their energies for organized efforts. One example would be for students to influence school policies. This type of person would, for example organize a food drive for the homeless (as opposed to the personally responsible citizen, which would volunteer time). Jefferson, Franklin, and Dewey are all proponents of this type of civic education (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Westheimer and Kahne (2004) also define another type of civic education program. The (c) justice oriented citizen is one who learns to critically assess social, political and economic structures while exploring strategies for change to society. A clear difference of all three would be that a participatory citizen would organize a food drive for the homeless, the personally responsible citizen would donate food and the justice-oriented citizen would critically analyze this happening and attempt to find a manner at fixing this social injustice to avoid future "food drives for the homeless" (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004).

Another form of civic education named "social justice" has been originally coined by Freire (Nieto, 2004). This civic education philosophy focuses on the development of values in students. The overarching drives are to increase equality among individuals and promote social change through skills and experiences. This is because Nieto (2004) finds that society is always evolving and changing. Critical thinking, progressiveness and exposure to different perspectives

are the central skills necessary to be successful as a society. This civic education model is comparable to the justice-oriented concept explained by Westheimer and Kahne (2004).

Civic Education Explained

Civic education is described by Tournier (2009) as something that cultivates virtues, knowledge and skills necessary for political participation. In essence, this is "political education" (Gutmann, 1999). Political education is an important aspect of having the young prepare to carry their roles as citizens. In some instances, it allows people to carry out their roles as citizens more efficiently as it trains them in the value of their opinions, knowledge and skills for each other (Gutmann, 1999).

Civic Education in its Infancy

Some, however, believe that civic education is still in its infancy in the United States. Walling (2007) believes that the demonstrable aspect of this has been how states could not agree on how they implement civic education in their curricula. For example, the state of Colorado requires only a half-credit or semester of civics or government coursework to graduate. Idaho on the other hand, requires five courses, two of which are in government and US history and one that has to be economics.

Researchers such as Soule (2008) and Galston (2004) agree that civic education is taught haphazardly. Galston expresses this because students are being taught civic courses at differing levels and with non-conforming interests. This has meant that students have not been able to engage or practice their civic knowledge with each other thereby causing civic education to be primarily theoretical and less applicable (Galston, 2004). Soule (2008) explains that the remedy to this teaching deficiency are the many government simulation experiences that could be provided to students in order to provide them with ample exposure to civics as well as its

practicality. She also demonstrates that other extra-curricular programs would be most helpful to students to nurture their interests in civic education (Soule, 2008).

Civic Education Instruction

Klofstad analyzes student civic interactions. His analysis shows that the more students speak among another about civic related topics (e.g. governmental policies and political issues) the more inclined students are to getting involved in civic activities (note that this was at the university level). This research is further interesting, because it pairs students that are highly knowledgeable and interested about civics with those that do not care as much. The analysis demonstrates that interest can be piqued for those uninterested conversing with the civically minded student (Klofstad, 2009). Hahn writes a compelling piece on how to effectively teach civic education, which builds upon Klofstad's findings. She finds that "turning points in history" such as Pearl Harbor (1941), President Obama's election and similar events should be included to make the coursework more relevant to the students. She even suggests that teachers attempt to tread into controversial current affairs topics in order to pique student interest (Hahn, 2009).

Mason and Delandshere (2010) believe that there is a manner at which teaching civic education is meaningful and can pique student interest. They find in particular that local cultural values have to be included in civics in order for the denizens to understand and absorb civic education. They find through their research that non-fixed choice questions and open-ended questions paired with engaged dialogue would help create a more effective civic education (Mason & Delandshere, 2010). Naturally, this would work if resources are abundant for educators. Soule (2008) further comments about instructor quality for civics. She finds trends that stem from the increasing gap of income inequality, cultural diversity, technological changes and the present focus on math and science. She believes that well trained teachers in intercultural diversity, socio-economic ills, technological savants as well as internet savvy educators could

help lead U.S. students to become productive members of society (Soule, 2008). Given these major hurdles, is there a way to make civic education more relevant to students? Bobek, Zaff, Li and Lerner (2009) advanced a research project to find the benefits of civic education and how it could be made most relevant to students. They find that experiential learning in conjunction with civic education (which includes various instructional strategies, such as service-learning) is necessary in order for students to learn the meaning of civic society. Ben Berger (2015) also demonstrates this principle through the evaluation of his classroom practices in conjunction with his students learning experiences. This is juxtaposed to how the traditional civic instructional method of teach and assess provides little room for practical applications.

Service-Learning

Furco and Billig (2002, p.5; Mitchell, 2008) believe that service-learning is a growing type of community based experiential learning approach that often promotes civic learning. This is because there is much literature touting the benefits of combining classroom-based experiences with community-based learning experiences (McGuire, 2010). In fact, McGuire writes that service learning could be a helpful component of civic education even sans civic instruction (McGuire, 2010). Furco suggests that the more effective service-learning programs involve problem-solving activities and academic applications thus create opportunities for more robust civic education programs (Furco, 2002). Galston (2001) confirms this information with the fact that experiential learning is the best method of having civic education retained by students. Galston also notes that private and public schools offer equally effective courses in civic education, which is contrary to the perception that many people have of private schools (in other words they assume private schools give an “elitist” education) (Galston, 2001).

While community service and service-learning are separate topics, community service is often considered an integral part of service-learning (Jacoby, 1996; Zlotkowski, 1998). Hart,

Donnelly, Younnis and Atkins (2007) have sought to know if there was an influence of high school community service participation, civic knowledge and extracurricular involvement on voting and volunteering in early adulthood. They find that voluntary and school required community service were strong predictors of adult volunteering and voting. Furthermore, student involvement in high school extracurricular activities is found to be predictive of voting and volunteering. These activities have to be considered an instrumental activity (e.g. yearbook, student government and debate club). Expressive activities such as sports, band, chorus and drama are not helpful in causing people to be more engaged in civics (Hart, et al., 2007).

Therefore, how could one plan effective community service and service-learning programs?

Parker-Gwin and Mabry suggest that for civic and academic outcomes to manifest, that service-learning needs to have two goals for the participants. Through a study of 260 students, they find that a student's service learning experience could be enhanced by regular critical reflection and extensive integration of service activities with course material (Parker & Mabry, 1998).

Eby (1998), however, contends that via service-learning community members often "become objects rather than participants or passive recipients rather than actors." Furthermore, Eby contends that service-learning often creates a disconnect between a student and the community that is receiving the service-learning benefits. Often times the support that the student provides is already available in the community, but is ignored. This causes the student to view the community as "needy" causing the student to separate their understanding of how the individual issues they are fixing can affect the wider society by creating an individualism effect. In other words, the student is so far removed from that community that they do not see that their individual future also depends on that community (Eby, 1998; Hondagneu-Sotelo & Raskoff, 1994). In addition service-learning can do harm to communities as volunteers often change causing a bond to be frayed as the present volunteers change hands with new volunteers causing relationships to be short-term. Finally, service-learning often takes the place of government

intervention causing needed long-term support to a community to be negated as there is a perception of needs met by service-learning participants (Eby, 1998).

Eby (1998) does state, however, that a strong service-learning program that is enduring, long-lasting, and engaging for all parties can create for a well received and effective program. A leadership program is one component of service-learning that often helps support service-learning projects (Boyte & Farr, 1997).

Leadership

Leadership is a component of civic education that is often practiced in schools (AEDCCMS, 2004). According to Woyach (1993), leadership in civic education is "best understood as a dimension of leadership itself, distinctive only in that it involves special competencies. In general terms, leadership involves the structuring and initiating activities that citizens must perform if groups (the public) are to organize themselves, establish goals and priorities, make decisions, settle conflicts, and in general accomplish their goals". Conover and Searing (2000, p. 108) find that students identify themselves as civically involved, but their concepts are rudimentary as they focus on rights, which is more individualistic and passive in comparison to what a true leader does (Conover & Searing, 2000, p. 108).

Usually leadership is considered an extra-curricular or co-curricular activity (Astin, 1985; Woyach, 1993). Prior research has found that school leadership activities play an important role in preparing students for leadership roles (Schuh & Laverty, 1983; Cox, 1988; Ellis, Small-McGinley & De Fabrizio, 2001). Therefore, the decline in club funding and scheduling should be considered an important threat to civic education as leadership opportunities become lessened for students (Woyach, 1993).

Other Issues

Given the nature of civic education, do males and females absorb the same information or do they have different proclivities as a result of civic edification? Metzger and Smetana (2009) wrote an analysis on this topic. They parsed it by gender. The researchers found that males typically felt that political involvement was a duty for society whereas females felt that community service was obligatory for society. Both groups felt that more civic involvement meant less personal justification for service and it was seen in a positive light (i.e. the more involved the more positive the view was of that type of behavior). Interestingly, if males and females were together, then they both prioritized political involvement (e.g. voting) as a more important duty than community service. Metzger and Smetana (2009) think this is because adolescents have the feeling that in order to preserve a democracy, they must vote (even if in reality other types of civic actions are possible; see social justice by Banks and Freire). They also found that positive behavior increased among adolescents if they were involved in community projects and extracurricular programs (Metzger & Smetana, 2009).

While researchers in the United States agree that civic education is taught in a haphazard manner, what are other nations doing in terms of civic education? A relevant review follows that shows other international perspectives on civic education.

International Civic Education

Although global civic education research is providing domestic civic education programs with new direction, a further look at international civic education is included in this study. This is because many nation states are interpreting civic education through different lenses and original factors (Banks, 2008). Hahn (2008) believes that globalization and other global force changes are causing changes in civic curricula; thus a fresh look at civic education is becoming increasingly important to see the evolution of civic education programs around the world. The catalyst of

these global changes emanates from the fall of the Soviet Union. Those nations that comprised this union, have been attempting to create programs that would educate their citizenry with their rights and responsibilities according to their new laws (Hahn, 2008). As a result, Hahn has been calling for an "international exchange" on best practices in civic education (Hahn, 2008). The international exchange might not be applicable to all civic education programs around the world but could help in sharing best practices. Rapoport (2009) expresses some reservations to an international civic "best practices" sharing opportunity. In Russia, for example, there has been a call to return to "State Patriotism Education." This has been receiving a lot of criticism globally as it reflects an older, Soviet type of civic education. For example, Russian civic education has been calling for "authoritarian democracy." Rapoport questions if this would be a return to an anachronistic form of viewing the state (Rapoport, 2009). Best practice sharing could run into other cultural snags. Yang and Chung (2009) found this at a Taiwanese school. They discovered that students were interested in civic education; however, they were not accustomed to critical thinking (a skill needed to evaluate if you agree with your leaders' decisions) and thus did not participate well in their research. This was because critical thinking has not traditionally been a skill taught or encouraged by Taiwanese educational leaders (Yang & Chung, 2009). Finkel has done something comparable to this Taiwanese study, only he focuses on the Dominican Republic and South Africa. He finds that in those nations civic education had to be paired with civic engagement (e.g. teach about voting and subsequently voting) or people would not learn and retain civic knowledge in those cultures (Finkel, 2002). Cogan and Morris (2001) made a more expansive study. They compare various Anglo and Asian civic education curricula. The results are that Anglo centric nationalities had their civic curricula focus more on the study of democracy, the country's constitutional history, democratic values and citizen's rights. Instead, most Asian nations had their studies focus on "good citizenship," "the common good," moral education and various values associated with civics (Cogan & Morris, 2001). In addition, even if

the courses are developed as a tool in training civically minded denizens, obedience and social order are the actual realizations from all national civic courses. The Anglo nations are especially strong in the last two realizations. Finally, flexibility, relevance and variation are most associated with Anglo civic curricula. Equality of access and moral behavior are the main hallmarks of Asian civics courses (Cogan & Morris, 2001).

European Civic Education

Different from both Asian and Anglo civic programs are European programs. The German system for example, has its own challenges. Richter (2006) explains how the German civic education system lacks direction and resources. This has been because the government does not support the curricula through standards leaving the course open to local interpretation. As a result, civic education has been underfunded and under supported. This has caused many German students to not be exposed to civic education and thus they do not learn at an early age about their civic rights and responsibilities (Richter, 2006). Future research would have to identify if the lack of support had an actual impact on German civics and interest in government.

A study of Italian students shows that those students that report more acute civic engagement interests have aspirations to contribute to their communities (Crochetti, Jahromi & Meeus, 2012). These same students are highly achieving and involved in volunteer activities. The findings thus make it clear that civic education is not as effective in influencing student civic engagement as their behavior is already set prior to being exposed to civic education (Crochetti, Jahromi & Meeus, 2012).

Some research compares different civic education programs from around the world. In a global civic education comparison, the U.S. schools achieves high marks from Torney-Purta (2002). This would be because U.S. schools focus on rigorous civic content and skills, have open classrooms for discussions, encourage participative school culture and emphasize the importance

of the electoral process. To answer the thesis of how international civic programs compared, Torney-Purta (2002) uses a study from the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) of 90,000 students (fourteen year olds) in 28 countries. These students have been tested on knowledge of civic content and skills, surveyed about concepts of citizenship, attitudes toward governmental and civic institutions and political actions. What has found was universally categorical, that the more resources a student has at their disposal and the higher educational level achieved, the more they will be civically active. One additional observation from this study is that the more women were in parliament in a nation (or high-level governmental jobs), the more positively students viewed women in the workplace. The Scandinavian countries scored the best in this category and South American nations and Russia scored the lowest in terms of positively viewing women in the workplace (Purta-Tomey, 2002).

Civic Education in International Schools

Civic education is in its infancy in the international school environment. This is because most civic education research and institutional support is focused on national as opposed to international schools (Schultz, 2009). In fact, often the phrasing "international civic education" is referring to a comparison of different national (or regional) civic education programs (Taylor, 2002). This is also because international schools tend to focus on global citizenship as opposed to civic education per se (Kennedy, 2012). This is due to the nature of the international school environment and the fact that the school is comprised of large groups of heterogeneous student populations (Kennedy, 2012).

At present, civic education is making an influx into international schools. For the most part, the focus, however, is on service-learning and on extra-curricular opportunities as opposed to a curriculum based model, which is more comparable to national civic education programs (Carter, 2013). One example program would be the Global Citizenship Diploma where students

are challenged to complete various independent extra-curricular and service learning projects. The students must then submit a reflection based on their experiences and explain how those students have received global citizenship training. They can gain certificates or diplomas that could complement their high school degrees. While this program only has three participating schools (as of March, 2015) it still shows that there is an interest in global citizenship (Global Citizen Diploma, 2015). The British Council, which also provides curriculum support for international schools throughout the world, also provides some global citizenship guidelines. It encourages teachers to incorporate themes of global citizenship education such as "Identity and Belonging, Sustainable Living, Fairness and Equality, Conflict and Peace and Rights and Responsibilities" (Global Citizenship Themes, 2014).

Culture Export via Civic Education

Yet, one aspect of civic education is also the export of national values through external civic programs. Craddock has created an analysis on how civic education could be applied to supranational and national organizations. First of all Craddock linked civic education to "Soft Power" which is a concept developed by Joseph Nye. Soft Power is meant to illustrate the other power that a government had at its disposal such as financial pressures and diplomatic channels as opposed to military action (hard power) (Craddock, 2005). In Craddock's analysis, he primarily focuses on civic educational program from the European Union and the United States. He evaluates how they exported their civic ideals also known as soft power using civic education as its vehicle. He finds that the U.S. has seen more effectiveness in exporting its civic education programs due to the unique spin that U.S. teachers brought to the programs. This spin is to allow the receiving nation's culture to become fused with the concept of democracy thereby allowing the local population to practice civics in a culturally familiar milieu. The EU on the other hand has major problems because the lawmakers of this supranational body do not speak with one

voice in the political sphere (unlike the economic realm), that is, most nations in the European Union do not agree with a single approach to civic education and therefore their programs often are too weak to have any type of effect on the receiving nations. Furthermore, the EU programs also seem to stress European citizenship thereby limiting the areas where civic education could be taught (i.e. their education is not applicable outside the EU's sphere of influence). Some have also criticized the European Union's civic education program. Kuhn (2006) criticized five components of the European Union civics program. First (1) he is critical in that most European programs' curricula lack empirical studies about civic education's effectiveness and do not provide data on these curricular programs, which cause the programs to be less effective. (2) The curricula seem to depict the model citizen as one that is more capable of being involved as opposed to one that is active (i.e. a citizen that is knowledgeable about civics but does not necessarily act continuously in this role). (3) the lack of training in political conduct and decision making competencies, (4) it should be stressed in civic curricula the political and cultural history to correct past political mistakes or "naïve ideas" and (5) democracy and learning should also complement another and are dependent on another and cannot be separated in civic education (Kuhn, 2006). Finally, Mason (2006) cautions that the idea of exporting a civic education model would not be effective. Particularly, Mason finds that democracy cannot be exported into other cultures at the initiative of the sending nation. Only nations that invited international institutions to come and teach civics are open to actual societal change (Mason, 2006).

Even if there seems to be some agreement that international civic education practices are relevant to be shared between nations, those programs that have been successful have infused some form of cultural adjustment in their curriculum. Marquette (2007) cautions that strong governmental institutions are necessary or the entire civics program would be useless as program participants would become demoralized if they could not practice their new found knowledge (Marquette, 2007). This is different from the US where through civic education citizens learn

they can access strong and trustworthy institutions. Those same institutions support citizens in enjoying a stronger democracy. One manner, of citizens supporting said institutions is by joining the military, a basic civic commitment (Snider, 2003). This begs the question to what level are institutions and the community supported by military members?

Military Community

Some consider working for the military as one of the basic civic commitments that a citizen should make in support of their country and democracy (Snider, 2003). Yet, how important is community engagement within the military community (note that community engagement is the closest connection to civic education as literature is very sparse on civic education within the military)? In other words, once one begins to serve in the military, is there an end to one's civic duties? Researchers Bowen, Martin, Mancini, and Nelson (2001) commit a study to answer this question. They found that the military community is one of the most important aspects of military life. In fact, the unit commanders and human service organizations are seen as critical resources nurturing military community engagement and strengthening the sense of community among Air Force associates (Bowen, Martin, Mancini & Nelson, 2001). Yet, one area not addressed in that research is the affect of military life on children. Most importantly, how are the children educated?

Huebner, Mancini, Bowen and Orthner (2009) echo this sentiment with their research on how informal and formal networks could be better utilized to serve children of military members in dealing with parental deployments. They find that the stress of deployment mingled with programs such as the Air Force support center or Army Readiness Program would be crucial to helping military families deal with this military malady (Huebner, et al., 2009). Drummet, Coleman and Cable (2003) also find that the stress on military families is uncanny. What is important about their research is that they find that families are often ignorant about what is

possible in terms of career development for the active duty spouse and that military support institutions are often underutilized. They call for a more efficient support network for families in order to alleviate the stress associated with serving the military (Drummet, et al., 2003).

A report produced by Esqueda, Astor and De Pedro (2012) has even made "a call to action" in terms of research on children of military members that are in public schools (note that these are not schools that are run by a ministry of defense). This is because they find that these children are typically overlooked whenever schools implement policies and procedures for their patrons (Esqueda, et al., 2012). Therefore, a school system dedicated and organized by the military would be an answer to those students that are often lower on the priority of education decision-makers.

Summary

Civic education is a vital component of any healthy democratic system. If people are to be aware of their civic rights and responsibilities then they must be educated to do so or face tyranny (De Montesquieu, 1900). Furthermore, there are major hurdles that are happening in societies around the world causing civic education to be of greater importance as demographic changes mingled with globalization are causing citizens to re-evaluate their values towards domestic and non-domestic citizens.

The international school studied for this dissertation is a school that is emerging as a civic education experiment. As students are learning leadership, civic studies and community lifestyles, they are becoming aware of their civic responsibilities to their society in an international environment. Given the international component of all of the different national sections and the research associated with their civic education experiments, this international school could provide an interesting look into not only the sparsely researched government-run community, but also how globalization affects students in an international environment.

Chapter Three: Methodology and Methods

Introduction

The goal of research is to create groundbreaking and edifying information. Yet it must also be grounded in sound research methodology and methods. Defining the methodology and philosophical driving forces in any research project is an important aspect of a study (Merriam, 2009). The following topics comprise chapter three which are the Statement of Study Purpose, Research Questions, Methodology, Qualitative Methods and Single Case Study help explain this in further detail.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to discover stakeholder perspectives of the civic education program at an international school in Europe.

Research Questions

Some important questions that are answered through this research are:

How do the stakeholders define civic education? (a) What are the differences and similarities in stakeholder perspectives? (b) How do the perspectives align with the civic education literature?

How do the stakeholders describe the program? (a) What are the differences and similarities in stakeholder perspectives? (b) In what ways do national perspectives influence stakeholder perspectives?

What are the intended outcomes? (a) Unintended? (b) What are some strengths as evidenced by the outcomes? (c) What are some opportunities as evidenced by the outcomes?

Methodology

Defining the methodology of a dissertation is one of the primary objectives of this section. It is considered fundamental by Merriam (2009). Marshall and Rossman (2010) state that qualitative research grounded in interpretative study has been a useful tool for "...behavior, education, management, social work, nursing and more." According to Creswell (2013, p. 17), a qualitative methodology should be employed when emerging methods, open-ended questions, interview/observation, document data and audiovisual data is analyzed. This provides for a theme and pattern interpretation. Therefore, this dissertation is an emerging study that utilizes open-ended questions. These questions are driven by research obtained from various educational documents. As a result, a qualitative methodology is the format for this project.

One drawback is the problem of neutrality in regards to inquiry-based research (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, p.13). According to Williams and May (1996) this problem could be overcome by avoiding a focus on predicting or explaining an expected outcome. Williams and May suggested that a researcher using qualitative methods should focus on understanding their research. This is accomplished through maintaining an interpretive paradigm (Williams and May, 1996). Therefore, from the researcher's point of view, it is important not to impose an outsider's purview, but one of discovery and a description of the insider view (Merriam, 1998, p.4). Interpretive researchers should therefore attempt to inquire from their subjects about their natural behavior in regards to the research topic. This in turn, according to Williams and May (1996) causes those subjects to construct meanings and interpretations of their behavior. This could cause some disruption, as social actors must develop meanings and interpretations of their behaviors (Williams and May, 1996). Therefore, for this research project the interpretive paradigm was utilized. As a result, questions were asked in order to discover interpretations, understandings, perceptions, and theories that subjects may hold.

Qualitative Research

The perspectives of the interviewees in relation to civic education at this international school are the crux of the study. This inherently is a qualitative inquiry (Marshall and Rossman, 2010).

Patton (1990) states that qualitative methods provide for both details and depth in terms of research. Furthermore, Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p.1) argue that qualitative methods cut through subject matter, disciplines and fields.

Rossman and Rallis (2012, p.9) construct eight characteristics of qualitative research and researchers:

1. Research is natural
2. Research should always draw on multiple methods in order to respect the humanity of the research participants.
3. Research is developing and emergent.
4. Research is interpretive.
5. Researchers should view social situations as complete or seamless.
6. Researchers should systematically reflect on their behavior and roles in research.
7. Researchers should consider how their personal biases could influence their study.
8. Researchers rely on moving dialectically between deduction and induction in an intricate environment.

In the end, researchers that employ qualitative methods are attempting to find the "complexity of social interactions as expressed in daily life and with the meanings the participants themselves attribute to these interactions" (Marshall and Rossman, 1995, p.2).

Qualitative studies therefore should include descriptions of people, events, interactions, happenings and observations. These studies could also include direct quotations from people including thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and applicable experiences (Patton, 2015).

To provide rich information and well-grounded accounts, interviewees were placed in a natural setting, which was familiar to the school environment in order to maintain a level of familiarity with the respondents (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Marschall and Rossman, 2010). Empty classrooms or empty spaces in the library or another place of choosing of the interviewee were utilized for the interviews.

Creswell (2013) explains that a researcher must interpret the data and make interpretations in order to develop a pattern of understanding. Therefore, I exercised regular introspection while questioning the research participants in order to allow the least amount of researcher bias to influence the research. This was because I had already acted as a social studies educator at this international school and have been the department chair for a number of years.

Constructivist Study

In this study, the focus is on the civic education program at an international school in Europe. Perceptions of teachers, administrators and alumni were explored as they described the civic education program. The interviewees were asked their perception of the civic education program at the school and what the outcomes were of the program. The questions for the teachers and administrators were "holistic" in that they focused on the program's planning, implementation and perceived impact. The students were asked what their perceptions were of the implementation and impact as they were not involved in the planning phase.

This study was bound by time and space (Yin, 2008). A constructivist research design aides a researcher in the understanding of a specific context of social practice, which also integrates participatory dimensions into the research process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Lincoln & Guba, 2013). Guba and Lincoln (1989b) and Green (2000) stated that a constructivist approach enables the identification of contextualized meaning from various points of view with the intent

of creating a single, collaborative reconstruction from the disparate realities that exist (Stordy, 2012).

Research Design

The research design is an important section of this dissertation. It demonstrates the means by which the information gathering process is designed.

Location Selection

This international school was selected because of its unique nature. This is because it is an international school with many different national curricula. This is contrary to a more typical international school, which could be interdisciplinary and offer a single curriculum (such as the International Baccalaureate) (Gehring, 2001). What can be seen at this international school is an environment where nationally driven and domestically educated staff intermingle in an international as opposed to an integrated global setting. Therefore, the differences of curricula and cultures are palpable, as educators are required to honor and enforce their national civic curricula. This makes this international school unique as well as a viable research location.

Community

The community that comprises this international school is quite diverse. Those students directly populating the school are primarily military dependent, government civilian and NATO civilian children (although a small handful are non-government associated).

The parents are in a total workforce of almost 4000 military, civilian service members and contractors. In terms of families, almost 10.000 individuals are related to those 4000 governmental affiliated people (counselor, Personal Communication, 2015). Note that even if the school houses almost 1000 students, many other students go to schools in the surrounding area,

boarding schools and quite a few associates of these NATO installations are without children or dependents (counselor, personal communication, 2015).

Data Collection Procedures

According to Merriam (2009), a component of qualitative research is for the researcher to act as a primary instrument of collecting and analyzing the information. For this project, interviews were used to gather the data. The interviews were subsequently analyzed by the researcher as he challenged his findings in various contexts. This in turn allowed the researcher to challenge the data according to Merriam (2009). At the end of the study, the interviews were compared to relevant civic education literature to ascertain how or if the school deviated from standard civic education practice.

Data Analysis Procedures

In working on this research project, the researcher produced a "... generalizing and not particularizing analysis" (Lipset, Trow, and Coleman, 1956, p.p. 419-420). This was because the research was comprised of the theoretical frameworks within this dissertation. Those theoretical frameworks guided the research in data collection with the help of concepts and models (Marshall and Rossman, 2010, p. 252).

According to Miles and Huberman, p.9, 1994, analyses from qualitative methods are typically drawn from the following procedures:

1. Affixing codes to a set of field notes drawn from observations or interviews.
2. Noting reflections or other remarks in the margins.
3. Sorting and sifting through these materials to identify similar phrases, relationships between variables, patterns, themes, distinct differences between subgroups, and common sequences.
4. Isolating these patterns and processes, commonalities and differences, and taking

them out to the field in the next wave of data collection.

5. Gradually elaborating a small set of generalizations that cover the consistencies discerned in the database

6. Confronting those generalizations with a formalized body of knowledge in the form of constructs or theories. (p. 9)

As a result of working with the data, themes, and categories were developed in order to aggregate findings more effectively (Merriam, 2002, p. 7; Creswell 2013, p.65). There was a search for convergence and external divergence from categories (Guba, 1978). Subsequently, data was chunked in themes and categories through a coding process (Rossman and Rallis, 2012).

The emerging ideas that come from the categories and themes were tested for alternate explanations. This was to strengthen the findings. According to Marshall and Rossman (2010), alternatives should be identified and examined for emerging rationalizations. Finally, the report was written by comparing stakeholder responses to the documented civic education literature.

Interviews

According to Merriam (2009, p. 114), interviewing is one of the primary means of collecting qualitative data. Therefore, semi-structured interviews were used to ascertain the interviewees' perspectives on the civic education program at this international school. First, a data analysis took place to where the relevant literature was analyzed. Secondly, questions from the literature were used as a foundation to create a semi-structured interview protocol.

The interviewees were first approached in an informal setting and received information on the study through a personal explanation. In the case of students, they were explained about the study only if (a) they have reached the age of 18 and (b) if their national administration had given prior approval. If an interest was noted, then the participants received an electronic letter explaining the study in more depth. Two days after the first letter, all participants received

another electronic letter requesting their consent for the study. Those consenting were requested to contact the researcher in order to set a date and time for the interview. All interviews took place after school and in the case of the students from the same national background as the researcher, they took place after graduation in order to minimize any type of implicit power the interviewer could hold over them.

The interviews were approximately one hour in length; however, some were shorter. First the interviewee was explained the project again and was given an option to not participate. Afterwards, definitions were given to the interviewee to help prime them for the upcoming questions. The definitions were given in paper format. Then the three formal questions were given to the interviewees with the sub questions included. This was to ensure the interviewee's understanding of the study. Subsequently the interview began and enough time was given for follow up questions and unexpected responses from the interviewees.

The location of the interview was in a quiet enough location so that maximum focus was given for this study. Empty classrooms, empty offices and other locations with easy access for the interviewees were used. The interviewer allowed the interviewee to select the location (from the prior mentioned venues) in order to maximize the interviewee's comfort throughout the process. If, however, the interviewee was not available for an interview in person, then the I offered to conduct the interview via Skype or Google Hangout. This electronic means of interviewing was considered a last resort. None of the interviewees were interviewed via electronic means.

The interviews were recorded on two separate devices. The first device, a laptop, had a software program that recorded the conversation (i.e. Audacity). It is a royalty free product. The second digital device was an Mp3 player that was a backup device used to record all audio. When the interviews were complete, both audio recordings were reviewed to find the most complete and clear audio recording. Whichever file was obsolete was subsequently permanently

deleted. The only file that remained was one recording per interview. All the audio files were stored in a secure location on my laptop, one that was only accessible by password protection. The computer also had a login that was password protected. Furthermore, all audio files removed from the Mp3 player so that this player would never have recordings other than immediately after an interview session (i.e. no files were stored on the Mp3 player).

I completed the transcriptions by computer (in Microsoft Word). While this was a time consuming process, more time was allotted with the data in order to gain further insight into the interviewee responses.

Participant Selection Procedure

Creswell (2013, p. 189) suggests that it is best to purposefully select participants or locations "that will help the researcher understand the problem and the research question." Creswell states that this does not necessarily have to include random sampling or stratification. Miles and Huberman (1994) state that the setting, the actors (interviewees), the events and the process (events as they are being undertaken by the actors within a location) are the most important variables to consider when selecting participants. Merriam notes (2009) that a researcher should select from a sample the most that could be learned with the focus on discovery, gaining insight and understanding. In addition, given the small sample size of able professionals, a small sample of great diversification has been attained using Creswell and Merriam's research. Patton stated that Opportunity Sampling (Patton, 2015, p. 235) is a great manner of gaining diversity in qualitative research. Therefore, the sample criteria is very important in order to gain a holistic understanding of a topic. In order to attain this understanding, I set several criteria for the teachers. First, only educators from the different nationalities that had middle and high school teachers were selected as these sections comprised the secondary section. Second, the teachers must have had at least 1 year of experience at the

international school. Third, they should have had some connection to the civic education program (per definition in this study). Finally, I constructed a teacher matrix with variables such as age, stage in career, nationality, gender, type of civic education input in the program and degree attained. The matrix, however, was somewhat limited given the small number of civic education related educators. This matrix was also teacher centric in that the other groups were not included in this selection procedure.

The administrators and students who were included in the study were selected through a different procedure. Following a query with alumni and graduating seniors, those who expressed availability and willingness to participate were selected. The same process was used for the administrators. Based on a personal query, those that expressed interest were included in this study. Therefore, according to Yin (2008), this study took advantage of convenience, access and geography.

Participants

This international school has few educators that only teach civic education (i.e. solely teaching courses relating to civics education). Yet there were a number of educators that were involved with civic education related topics such as community engagement (e.g. international soccer games, international clubs and Model European Parliament). Administrators were also involved in the broader context of civic education and thus were also included in this study. Former students were included in order to give a context of the impact of the program. In order to gain a reliable participant response, twenty-one current and former international school stakeholders from this school were interviewed for this dissertation. Of those stakeholders, three were U.S. section teachers, one was a Canadian section teacher, one was a German section teacher, five were administrators representing the Canadian, US and other sections and eleven were former students or 18-year-old seniors that were graduating.

The following were the North American teachers that volunteered for this study. One was a male, in his early forties and taught both advanced placement history and government. He was a former military officer and has a doctorate of philosophy in political science. The second was a gifted teacher. She has a master degree from Cambridge University. She instructed through the aide of the software program dubbed "Brainpop" which was a program that taught students about STEM and civics related topics. She has also been a part of the "Brainbowl" which was a yearly competition among U.S. students where they competed in social knowledge. She has worked different levels (K-12) at the international school and was in her late forties. The third North American teacher was an instructor of the JROTC program at the international school. He is a retired US air force colonel. He has helped the international school gain many awards for its outstanding JROTC performances and was an integral part of the leadership team of the school. He was in his early sixties. The fourth U.S. teacher taught courses such as Sociology, Digital Awareness and Family Counseling. He is married and has had a keen interest in developing documentaries that critically address social ills. He used his Digital Awareness course for this work and was in his early fifties. He also used character education as a primary teaching vehicle for his courses.

One German educator has also participated in this study. He was a married father and taught physical education courses to K-12 students. He was an educator involved in the Comenius Project for the German section and instructed high school students on educational trips. He was in his early forties.

Some school administrators were interviewed for this research project. The first administrator was the U.S. secondary school principal. She was a former German language teacher and has been in the U.S. educational system since the early seventies. She has also participated in the Comenius Project and was in her early sixties. The second was the U.S. secondary school assistant principal. She has been in the U.S. educational institution system for

almost 20 years and was a doctoral student at Bethel University in Education Studies. The third administrator was the school director. He was from Germany and has a doctorate from a prestigious German university. He had been a principal prior to coming to this international school and was in his late forties. Another administrator had been working as an assistant principal and counselor for the Canadian section. He had been an educator for over 30 years. The final administrator interviewed was the principal of the Canadian section. He has been an educator for over 25 years and led schools at many different levels in Canada.

Nine former students (of which all were 18 or older) were interviewed for this dissertation. Of the students that participated, three were of Asian descent (of which two were both Caucasian and Asian), eight were Caucasian and one was mixed (Caucasian and African-American). There were a total of five females and six males. The first is a student in the U.S. and graduated from the international school in 2015. He is studying to be a medical doctor. The second former student is an U.S. student that had been studying at this international school for a number of years. He is studying political science in the Netherlands. He graduated in 2015. The third student was a writer and long-term student at this international school. She has already published two books and is working on her third book in a series. She is studying science at a university in the United States. The fourth student was a student that had moved around many different international schools. She is a German national and is studying to be an international educator since graduation (2016). The fifth student is a Turkish alumnus that studied at the school for almost 3 years. When he arrived, his English was virtually non-existent. At present, he speaks a good English and plans to study political science in Turkey. He graduated in 2016. The sixth student is a German native that grew up at the German countryside. This international school was her first experience with an international school and this experience was "life-changing" for her. She graduated in 2016. The seventh student was an U.S. section student that is studying engineering in the US. He graduated in 2016 and played virtually every sport the

school offered and participated in many after school activities. The eighth alumnus graduated in 2016 as well. She participated in many sports and was captain of a number of sport programs in her senior year. The ninth student was class president numerous years and was involved in many sports and after school programs. He graduated in 2016. The tenth alumnus graduated in 2016 and is from Norway. He is studying political science in the Netherlands and participated in the soccer program at this international school. The final former student, the eleventh alumnus is of mixed Asian and Norwegian descent. She has participated in many Comenius activities and sports activities offered by this international school.

Interview Analysis

Data was examined by using an idiosyncratic analysis (Dey, 2003, p. 29) which helped identify the different unique characteristics of participant groups. This was based on the Miles and Huberman (1994) bimodal organizational structure that received input from the interview protocol and follow-up questions.

Marshall and Rossman (2010) suggest that emergent analytical strategies involve the adjustment of interviews for the different classes of people and events that are discovered. Yet, case study research was the mode of research for this project with detailed descriptions of the setting and interviewees and an analysis of the collected themes according to Creswell (2013, p. 65).

Instrument

Interview questions developed by Anderson (2010) were utilized as the inspiration for the interview questions of this study. They were adapted for this study with the permission of Anderson. Organization of the questions were kept in a similar format to Anderson (2010). A copy of the questions are in the Annex I.

Budget and Timeline

The budget for this study was quite limited. This was because I was already present at the location for the study. Small items were needed, such as a transcription software program, some treats for the participants (e.g. crackers and cheese) during the interviews and miscellaneous items. Therefore, the proposed budget was modest.

The timeline was much more important for this project, than the budget. This was because the international school students graduated in June and in order to gain access to these students, the interviews had to take place in this time period.

Single Case Study

"The classic case study consists of an in-depth inquiry into a specific and complex phenomenon...set within its real-world context" (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2013). The phenomenon in this case is the aggregation of the perceptions of the stakeholders at this international school. This is in a real-world context and could provide relevant information to show how people interact in terms of civic education at the school. A single case study is considered especially relevant in "efforts to evaluate highly broad and complex initiatives" (Yin & Davis, 2007) such as "...systems reforms, service delivery integration, community and economic development projects, and international development" (Yin & Davis, 2007). In this case, the perceptions of a community are observed and evaluated in an international context thereby making the case study format more appropriate.

A limitation is that this research project was focused on a single school. This limited the number of participants and the type of participant (in this case the participant whether teacher or administrator had to have international school exposure as opposed to only a public school exposure). In this study, there were the advantages of convenience, geographic proximity and access (Yin, 2013). This, however, did not mean that this study provided little information, given

that in qualitative study the true quality of information is obtained per sampling unit as opposed to the number of units (Patton, 2015, p. 169).

Interviews

The interviews were not held during instructional time. This was a requirement from the school, but also allowed the researched population to be more comfortable with the questions. This did mean, however, that the interviews were during a non-natural (school) time, in other words not where curriculum exposure occurred. Furthermore, those being researched were of different age levels and of dissimilar educational backgrounds. This meant that some might have responded less eloquently to questions and therefore might have received less weight in this study. I attempted to minimize this as much as possible (Creswell, 2013). During the interviews, there was a possibility that those being interviewed were uncomfortable or unwilling to share all they knew. This could have caused some of the findings to be untrue (Marshall and Rossman, 1995). Furthermore, some of the participants may have chosen not to participate, thereby causing the loss of their responses to make this research less reliable. Another possibility of convoluting the information could have been via the "Hawthorne Effect" to where the researcher's presence may have caused bias in the response of the interviewees in some manner (Gillespie, 1993). Finally, given the researcher's experience as a listener and questioner, he may not have had the perfection needed of a researcher. This could have caused the respondents to give less qualitative responses (Marshall and Rossman, 1995, p. 110).

Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Results

To inform researchers, educators and instructional leaders, the purpose of this single case qualitative study is to discover stakeholder perspectives of the civic education program at an international school in Europe.

Introduction

Chapter Four is comprised of data from interviews that are organized into two sections. The first section is an analysis of each interviewed group. Perceptions of the interviewees are analyzed by examining data and transcripts that relate to civic participation, comparative civic values and civic attitudes. The second section is a comparison and contrast of the different interviewed groups. This analysis involves looking for patterns across data sets.

Interview Aggregation of Each Participant Group

In this section, interviews from each participant group are reviewed. The analysis is provided in order to show how each participant views civic education at this international school. This section is dedicated to the findings from the interviews with (a) students (also referred to as alumni), (b) teachers and (c) administrators.

Students

Students were asked about their perception of the civic education program at this international school. Of the eleven students that participated in the interviews four are European nationals, one is Asian and the other six are North American (including one of Asian-American and one of African-American heritage). In terms of religion, one student is Muslim, one is Mormon and the other nine are either Christian or non-religious. Of the North American students, three graduated in 2015 and the other three in 2016. The rest were of European or Asian

descent and graduated in 2016. Finally, of the alumni interviewed, five were females and six were males.

Specifically, the students were asked to describe the program, how they experienced it and how it affected their civic engagement. Several themes evolved from their responses. The following were the emergent themes that emanated from the aggregated responses: (a) civic knowledge, (b) civic participation, (c) comparative civic values, and (d) civic attitudes. Note that the students represented various races and nationalities of North American, Asian and European descent.

Civic Education Program

In terms of the civic education program, there was a wide array of opinions on the quality of the program. Some students felt as if the program was very expansive and covered many areas of civic education. More students felt that the social studies department was very expansive in their teaching of civic skills. Furthermore, they stated that the social studies department was very good in preparing them to be civically engaged in society. A student felt that the civic education program was unique in that it was something different compared to what she experienced at other high schools throughout the world. That same student suggested that the uniqueness of the civic education program was tied to the international student body (and not necessarily in relation to the social studies department). A small number of students disagreed with the majority of other students and felt that the civic education program was too informal and that their civic understanding was primarily strengthened by their connection with their teachers. They felt that the many teachers were positive role models and as such influenced their interest in their communities. One student felt that the program was not well defined. This student wished that the school would explain civic education to him specifically as he felt left to interpret it on his own. Another student perceived the program to be shallow. He stated that there was not much

substance to the program and that students were left to create their own conclusions without staff input. The majority of interviewed students believed the civic education program at this international school was either of high quality or provided them with the tools to be successful citizens. Therefore, only a couple felt that the program was not a good program.

Civic Knowledge

Some students responded that they felt that there was some teaching of civic knowledge. More students felt that they learned more from activities like the Debate Club, which included government simulations such as Model United Nations, Model Harvard Congress and Model European Parliament than from formal class work. An outcome of this was that a couple of students felt that their peers should be compelled to join after school sports and clubs such as the Debate Club. These students felt that their membership in sports helped them be prepared to engage society. They would like to see the same program offered to all students. Part of the reason why they felt that students should be compelled to participate was because they did not realize how important the taught skills were from the Debate Club such as debating, leading and deliberating until after graduation. The last skill, deliberation, is considered to be an important component of civic education (Avery & Simmons, 2008). Almost all students that did not comment on the Debate Club as a primary vehicle of learning civic education also felt that the social studies department was their primary source of high quality civic education. One observation was that students that did not participate in the Debate Club did not know of its relevance to learning civic education. Conversely, those that did participate in the Debate Club spent felt that this experience was more relevant to civic education than formal coursework.

Civic Participation

Many students felt that there was a tacit rule or duty to actively participate in civic society. They indicated that learning about government (i.e. voting) and participation in the

Debate Club, but also other opportunities such as serving as leaders on sports teams and after school clubs like NHS and student council helped them to see the value of contributing to their societies. Some out of school experiences were also mentioned by students as civic learning experiences such as the International Student Leadership Program and the STEMposium.

A few students regretted not participating in the Debate Club as they believed that there is much that could have been learned in terms of civic participation. A couple of students regretted not participating in sports as they came to see this as an expression of civic participation (post high school graduation).

There was an almost categorical perception that there was too little activity and engagement in their local national community. Some students mentioned that they had been studying at the school for years and had no "relevant experience with anyone outside the school doors." They expressed a wish for more civic engagement in the local community (surrounding the school) as they felt like they could not understand or connect with school neighbors. This perception was directed towards local community and not their families or (parental) work community as students felt "engaged enough" in their school community. There was a hope that eventually the school would develop a service-learning program to address this need. The students believed that this would be beneficial for their learning, serve as a resume building opportunity and serve as a student character development prospect as well as give them an opportunity to "learn more about the local culture." Some students even felt that students should be "forced or compelled" to become civically engaged through service-learning. They indicated as their barometer the obligation set forth by the Ontario (Canadian) curriculum that students should graduate with at least a certain number of civic engagement hours before graduating. There was a feeling that this would be something that everyone could use and could happen to help increase a student's understanding of the world. A few students used the current "global

working environment" as their drive for how important civic engagement in international locations could be.

Finally, a small number of students wanted school officials "to question their needs and wants from the school." They felt that students were not inventoried enough to ask what their opinions were of courses, staffing or student study requirements. Students believed that by asking student opinion that the learning environment would become more efficient which would help make for a smoother learning experience with all the different national cultures. A couple of students also surmised that if they were asked for their opinions, that this could be one-step towards what they referred to as "student centered learning", which both students wished as the primary learning vehicle of the school.

Comparative Civic Values

Students unanimously spoke about their "international" civic (i.e. global citizenship) values they had gained from being at the school. Students changed because of their interaction with other students. None of the students made mention, however, that school experiences (curricular, co-curricular or extracurricular) built upon global citizenship. This seems somewhat contradictory, given that prior mentioned programs such as the Debate Club or sports programs helped them to engage society. A manner of explaining this is that the students did not find the Debate Club to build upon global citizenship skills, but they did found the program (or the sports programs) to build upon national civic education concepts (e.g. such as becoming engaged in the local society vis-à-vis becoming engaged with the local intercultural society). Almost all students explained that they had grown to understand other opinions and to respect them (note that most did not change their point of view, they just learned to accept other people's point of view), most of the student interviewees referred to this as "global citizenship empathy" (Pennington, 2014). These students also felt more "safe" in global environments in comparison to before they had

attended this international school. The students also believed they could easily "blend into non-familiar international environments" or situations due to their exposure of international cultures at the school. When speaking about some important issues that helped them gain insight into other perspectives, both North American and European students used different examples. The North American student interviewees used the example of "gun ownership" where they have never met people that opposed gun ownership (such as the European students). The European students used "LGBT rights" as their primary point of discussion with North American students. The students perceived that a further support of value change came from reading news from differing perspectives; a student even compared reading the U.S. news to that from the U.K. to formulate her opinions on world events and other topics. In turn, this led to "value changes" for most of the interviewed students. Nearly all students described becoming more liberal (although not necessarily describing themselves as liberal). Student interviewees mentioned that empathy, deliberation, toleration of different points of view and cultural adaptation (i.e. able to feel comfortable in non-native environments) were new skills learned as a result from the intercultural exchanges at this international school. Of those students that had "a very conservative upbringing" or little contact with new cultures, a couple are European and a few are North American.

One compelling point that was evident was that students that came from a single cultural learning environment (i.e. grew up in only one location) were greatest challenged by the international environment at the school. The challenge specifically was to their own civic values held prior to coming to this international school. These students believed that they gained the most (in terms of their personal learning experiences and personal value changes) from the international environment as opposed to students that had already experienced several international living experiences. These were typically North American students, although a couple European students described a similar feeling. On the other hand, some students that were

of European origin found the "interaction with different nationalities" to be less "life changing" in terms of their civic values.

A number of students also felt that there was a major lack of practical courses (i.e. life skills) to help them understand the world as opposed to academic rigor at this international school. They felt that while academic learning was important, they were "entirely unprepared" (one student mentioned "categorically") to understand how to pay their taxes, develop a budget, prepare food or even how to plan for retirement. These are important civic skills (Finkel & Ernst, 2005). Some indicated that one course that helped somewhat in this was the Personal Finance course. Some students regretted not taking this course or felt it was too North American centric and was not applicable to a European person. Other students really enjoyed the World Issues course as they felt that it prepared them to understand global issues (note that some students mixed global issues with life skills). All that commented on both courses, however, did not say that either course would help them become more civically engaged, only that the coursework would help stimulate their awareness of social issues.

Finally, there was also a sense of poor planning in school management issues between the different school administrators. This was especially in terms of communication between the different national representative heads. A few students perceived this was a poor model for civic behavior. Some students felt that this poor communication was also evident from the teachers. One example of this was when a student stated that some teachers did not show any "interest or empathy" in non-native ideas. This could be because those educators were trained in national educational issues and were not aware of global cultural differences. Those students that made these comments would prefer a school environment where the adults demonstrated good global citizenship skills among peers so they could replicate the same attitudes among their student peers.

Civic Attitudes

Many students reported having a positive learning experience at the school. Of those that mentioned a positive environment, some mentioned the other students (i.e. peer-to-peer behavior) and even if more mentioned the teachers (i.e. teacher-to-student behavior) as their primary source of positive interaction.

All students felt that they have changed their attitudes in how to deal with society due to the experience at this international school. Most say that they would become more civically engaged due to what they have learned, primarily focusing on the Debate Club's influence on your civic attitudes. One alumnus interviewee actually joined her university's government council due to the influence of the civic education program at the school. On the other hand, a couple alumni did not change their behaviors drastically, even if they described being more cognizant of their post secondary communities and learning discussions they have had in their new learning environments. Those alumni are male as opposed to the alumnus that is female.

A mixture of students also felt that there should be "more international interactions at the international school." In particular, they believed that there was too little interaction between the different nationalities within the school. Some students wished that there were more activities planned with the other national students such as "pep rallies, class meetings, celebrations, etc." Furthermore, a few students participated in the Comenius Project and wished that there would be more opportunities to interact with other national schools throughout Europe in addition to the different nationalities at the school.

Teachers

Five teachers were queried about their perception of the civic education program, what they believed the program could accomplish for the students, what role the administration had in supporting the program and they were asked to design a program according to their own

imaginative civic properties. The responses were coded with the four following themes (a) civic knowledge, (b) civic participation, (c) comparative civic values and (d) civic attitudes. In terms of demographics, the teachers represented various nationalities of North American and European descent. Most were either Christian or non-religious.

Civic Education Program

Teachers overall had disparate opinions of what constituted the civic education program at this international school. Most teachers had "no knowledge" of any formalized civic education program. One teacher believed that there was some civic education provided via the social studies courses, JROTC and programs such as the Comenius Project. Another teacher, however, perceived that there was "a major push for teaching citizenship skills to the children in the elementary section, but not at the secondary school."

Civic Knowledge

The teachers felt overall that students were learning important civic concepts at the school (even if most stated that they did not perceive a formalized civic education program). Most social studies teachers gave examples of work and projects they have committed with the students which they perceived to be civic education. The majority of the teachers did not know what other teachers instructed as civic education (or how they defined civic education) and would have preferred knowing this information. In other words, there was a feeling of isolation in terms of teaching civic education and they wanted to collaborate more with fellow educators to know what they were doing given that there was no common definition or understanding of civic education at this international school.

Civic Participation

Most educators felt that students were participating well in civic related activities. A number of teachers defined some of those activities (e.g. the Comenius Project, JROTC, Debate

Club and ISNY) as "great civic education opportunities," although one educator felt powerless in not being able to create more civic engagement opportunities for students at the school. This teacher perceived that there were opportunities for students to actively participate in their societies, but that teachers in the school were too focused on their curriculum. He surmised that schools should focus on "character education" and that this international school should do so as well. Note that the majority of teacher interviewees described JROTC as a formal civic education course and most defined civic education as after school programs or out of school experiences. This meant that less teachers felt that civic education was taught at the school with the exception of JROTC and Government class. This also meant that the majority of teachers believed that civic education was imparted in after school activities as opposed to curricular efforts.

There was also a sense that the school administration did little to nothing to help support civic education instruction at the school. There was one educator, however, that worked in all levels at the school (K-12) that felt that the North American head in the elementary section was supporting civic education instruction. Furthermore, one educator felt that there was "adequate support from the secondary school administration" (note that this teacher was not North American). One find from the interviews, was that most teachers felt that "service-learning was a major lacking component of the school." They wanted students to (a) learn by doing, (b) apply that knowledge in "real world" scenarios and (c) engage the local community more actively. In terms of the community, all teachers defined this as the local European community (surrounding the school) and not the families of the students or (parental) work environment.

One point that was missing was more support for sports. Only a couple of teachers, mentioned sports as "a great way" to foster leadership or management skills for students. This could, however, be due to the lack of sports interest of interviewed teachers and may not reflect a major portion of the faculty.

Finally, some teachers mentioned that civic engagement should be a "top priority" for the school, as they perceived this to be the most important learned attribute for "good citizenship." These same teachers did not see the school administration supporting this as initiative even if they felt that civic engagement should be a priority for the school.

Comparative Civic Values

When speaking about civic values, most educators mentioned the benefit of an international school for students to learn about civic values. Those that mentioned the international environment as a benefit referred to the school as providing global citizenship opportunities to the students. Most teachers explained that this environment allowed students to gain access to new ideas and gain new character traits such as "adaptability, tolerance and empathy". Some teachers also mentioned how they attempted to "foster this environment" through their teachings and teacher-to-student interactions. Most teachers mentioned the international working environment as a conducive learning element and saw both the students and educators benefitting from the international interaction. A couple of educators, however, expressed disappointment with the separation of the nationalities and stated that "the students were at a significant learning loss" because they could not intermingle with other international students as in previous years. They felt that the school had become "too fragmented" and could benefit from a renewal of commitment to all national learning objectives, especially in fostering global citizenship. In addition, some teachers believed that students from the different nationalities should interact more often. They felt that a learning opportunity had been missed by students not being able to "compare their cultural values and opinions" through formal coursework offerings and limited (by nationality) after school experiences. Furthermore, most teachers felt that the administration heads inadequately modeled positive international cooperation. This is in part by the communication that was often lacking between national

representatives, but also was visible through poor international cooperation. They perceived this to be especially seen during major school events. Some teachers expressed that other teachers could use "intercultural sensitivity training" as they had numerous interactions with colleagues that did not bode well in terms of intercultural understanding (note that these educators were of separate grade levels of the school even if they were both North American). A couple of teachers felt that the school administrators needed to work better together, especially in terms of communication. Another teacher wished that the school would do a better job communicating school trips. He suggested that by teachers "sharing out of school student learning opportunities, that students could increase their knowledge and gain a better understanding of how societies have evolved, especially in terms of local European history."

In terms of character education, several teachers felt as if character education was taught well at the school. They believed that student "good student behavior" was indicative of well-taught character education. A few teachers, however, felt like there was not enough character education taught at the school. One teacher felt that students embody an "entitled culture" and this educator felt that the administration supported the "entitled" sentiment by students. This opinion was unique to this teacher and not expressed by any other teacher (or other interviewed groups).

One teacher envisioned that the school could work at a grander level together. This teacher felt that at the school redundant courses were often supported by the national heads. This teacher felt that this caused for a loss of potential learning for students, as they could not access different courses due to course redundancies between the different nationalities. This teacher expressed concern because there were gap analyses performed in the past (comparing different national curricula), however, he did not understand why those gap analyses were not being used to drive the school's course offerings. In effect, this teacher felt that because the gap analyses

were not honored, "administrators were pursuing an inefficient learning environment." This caused students to miss intercultural exchange opportunities as well as learning opportunities.

Civic Attitudes

In terms of civic attitudes, one teacher also hoped that there would be a focus on student centered learning as this educator believed that students often know better what they need to learn as opposed to their teachers. This teacher even wondered why students were not asked their opinions on "class relevance or learning methods." Students, in this teacher's opinion, could help mold a more beneficial learning environment.

Finally, life skills were an important topic for some teachers. They perceived that this area was not addressed enough (or at all) by the school. They defined life skills by activities such as cooking, communicating across diverse cultures, paying taxes, maintaining a vehicle and dealing with relationship issues.

Administrators

The international school administrators that participated as respondents to the interviews were five in all. They gave their perceptions on what they believed the civic education program to be at the school. They also discussed what the intended and unintended outcomes were of the program. The administrators were also asked what role the school administration had in influencing the civic education program. Finally, administrators were asked to design a civic education program according to their own specifications. The responses were coded using the four themes: civic knowledge, civic participation, comparative civic values and civic attitudes. Note that the administrators represented various races and nationalities of North American and European descent. All are either Christian or non-religious.

Civic Education Program

In terms of the civic education program, there seemed to be a disconnect to what administrators perceived as the civic education program. For example, one administrator suggested that teachers teach civic education different depending on their curriculum (i.e. this administrator felt that the civic education program was teacher specific and not a major connection throughout the school). A different administrator perceived the program as "piecemeal" to where "one teacher did teach civic education and the next would not decide to teach it or would neglect the teaching of civic education by focusing only on the curriculum." What was interesting was that a different administrator, however, felt that the program was influenced by the administration as a facilitator (i.e. the civic education program was affected by administrator-to-teacher-to-student). The other administrators did not comment on the program specifically, just that it was global in nature. A couple administrators also focused on international students and spoke more about global citizenship as opposed to national civic education. In other words, they felt that the civic education program was based more on global citizenship than on national civic principles.

In terms of unintended outcomes of the program, a few administrators perceived that there were no unintended outcomes of the civic education program at this international school. On the other hand, one administrator felt that the unintended outcome was the success of the Debate Club and the fact that teachers primarily taught national based civic education as opposed to internationally based civic education. This same administrator continued that teachers tended to "rely on the international employees for the international component of civic education" (as opposed to teachers becoming involved in teaching international civic education in their classroom). This administrator felt that this was a shame as teachers could "incorporate global civic learning in their classroom." A different administrator agreed with the previously

mentioned administrator in the fact some educators focused too much on their national civic education program and not enough on global civic education.

An additional point was that most administrators agreed that the Debate Club was an "excellent form of civic education for the students." Most expressed regret with the fact that the club did not have all students in the school, as it is a very well regarded learning opportunity for the students by students, teachers and administrators at this international school.

Civic Knowledge

As previously mentioned, one administrator felt that there was an evident program for teaching national civic education to the students, although most administrators focused on the international learning environment for the kids. As a result, most administrators perceived students to be learning global citizen values vise-a-vise national citizen values.

Furthermore, there was very little discussion to what students have been gaining in terms of what teachers instruct. The focus, however, by most administrators was on what kids were learning from each other (i.e. global citizenship skills by student-to-student interaction). Some administrators, however, did laud one educator at the school for his teaching of character education. An administrator also praised the JROTC students for "volunteering for anything the administration needed" (which they defined as experiential education). There was an impression from this administrator that the JROTC program was well organized to help serve the community and that other teachers could use this as an example to teach civic education.

Civic Participation

Some administrators regretted that there was very little experiential education going on at the school (even if one administrator lauded the JROTC program). They believed that students would learn best in "real world scenarios," but they felt those opportunities were lacking for students of the school. These same administrators provided the example of how students could

learn how to participate in their society best by "doing in their community." A different administrator wondered if this was because of the "difficulties with the security environment." Interestingly, most administrators placed most of the burden of student civic participation in society on the teachers, in other words, teachers needed to teach students to be participants even if they recognized there to be a strenuous security environment.

While many administrators mentioned experiential education, a couple of administrators specifically commented that they would like to see a service-learning program at this international school. They both envisioned this to be a "globalized experience" as opposed to a "national civic program." Finally, one administrator expressed disappointment with the fact that there were not enough life skills taught to students. This administrator envisioned cooking, doing taxes, engaging technology and more to be some of those life skills.

Comparative Civic Values

All administrators lauded the international environment and felt that this was a rigorous learning environment for the students to grasp. They felt that students were challenging each other on their civic values and expressed that students would leave the school changed as a result.

A few administrators mentioned that they saw the "value of adaptability" grow in students that are at the school. This was in reference to students being "adaptable to different intercultural environments." One of these, however, surmised that students "were not well prepared for culture shock" when they returned to their national environments. That individual did not give details on how to prepare the students for this occurrence, but did find it troublesome.

An administrator, however, mentioned that there needed to be "more collaboration among teachers of different national origin." This administrator also felt that some educators "needed to learn to accept each other's culture as opposed to the present intercultural environment to where

some educators disliked each other along national lines." A different administrator echoed this sentiment; however, this administrator focused on the "individual egos" as opposed to the cultural background of those in leadership positions. A few other administrators disagreed on these premises and felt that this "dislike" was primarily driven by national curriculum requirements and that the problem with acceptance between the different cultures was not "culturally based." Most administrators felt that all national sections were attempting to work in their educational environments as well as possible even if they noted surmountable difficulties. One administrator, however, did state that more collaboration between the nationalities could happen to the betterment of student learning. This administrator felt that the lack of collaboration could be due to the fact that "administrators received very little intercultural training to prepare for working in the international environment." A different administrator echoed a similar sentiment, but focused on teachers in that teachers are not taught international education, but national education. This same administrator surmised that there could be more of a focus on an international framework or international curriculum and "less on national curriculum." This administrator also suggested that there "should be some international educational training" for teachers at the school to collaborate on student learning. A couple administrators expressed that an additional manner of dealing with this would be to "create time for teachers to collaborate on an international scale within the school." While a few administrators mentioned the Comenius Project as potential solutions, still working within the building between different national representatives should be a "priority for the school." The outcome, according to a couple of administrators could be that courses become integrated at the elective level such as music, physical education and international sports (after school clubs).

In terms of shared civic values, all administrators indicated that global citizenship was the primary "civic value" emanating from the student experience at this international school.

Civic Attitudes

The civic attitudes were considered by all administrators to be that students were positive in nature and were accepting of each other. An administrator also referred to students as great “self-advocates.” This same administrator felt that this could be translated into giving the students more control in the school, thereby allowing them to design their own civic education and participate in course planning. This administrator also felt that “student-centered-learning” could be attainable at the school and could be a needed element “to make the school a better learning environment.”

Comparing Similar Grouped Responses

All respondents were treated in an equal manner in order to retain the highest quality of information. The students, teachers and administrators all used approximately an hour for the interview. Some found it helpful to explain their thoughts on the school in a third person manner (while interviewing).

To express and understand stakeholder perceptions fully, a number of tables have been constructed. They have been organized by research question with key findings stemming from the responses of the various stakeholders. Where groups corresponded in response or where all were in agreement, those responses were also documented in the tables below.

Research question 1: How do the stakeholders define civic education?

Table 1 - All stakeholders

Key finding	All groups defined civic education in a disparate manner.
-------------	---

Research question 2: How do the stakeholders describe the civic education program?

Table 2a - Teachers

Key finding	Teachers did not know what other educators taught in terms of civic education.
-------------	--

Key finding	Teachers felt constrained in teaching civic education if it deviated from the formal curriculum.
-------------	--

Table 2b - Administrators

Key finding	The administrators felt they provided adequate administrative support for civic participation activities.
-------------	---

Table 2c - Students and administrators

Key finding	Both students and administrators believed there was a lack of civic education in the curriculum.
-------------	--

Table 2d - All stakeholders

Key finding	All stakeholders perceived global citizenship to be a key element of the school (with disparate definitions of global citizenship)
Key finding	All stakeholders perceived students to learn civic value changes such as empathy and tolerance by student-to-student interaction
Key finding	All stakeholders perceived extracurricular programs to provide best practices for civic education
Key finding	All stakeholders perceived a lack of in and out of school international interactions at all levels such as student-to-student, student-to-teacher and so on.
Key finding	All stakeholders believed there was a curricular deficiency of service-learning with civic engagement of the local national community
Key finding	All stakeholders perceived a lack of leadership communication and model civic behavior
Key finding	All stakeholders felt that there was a paucity of character education

Comparing Group Responses

This qualitative study is to discover teacher, alumni and administrator perspectives on the civic education program at an international school in Europe. Twenty-one participants were interviewed for this study of which eleven were students (three graduated in 2015) and all others graduated in 2016. Five were teachers and five were administrators. The following is a comparison of the responses by each group.

It is entirely expected that most groups have perspectives, which belie their hierarchical bias. A few teachers and many students felt that the administration was not contributing enough to the civic education program at this international school whereas some administrators believed that the teachers were not teaching enough experiential education and some students agreed with this contention. One administrator was the only respondent that felt that the administration "was doing enough to support the civic education program." On the other hand, most students and one teacher felt that the civic education program and social studies departments were of high quality. The administrators did not address their view of the social studies department, but this omission could be because their focus was more on global civic education as opposed to national civic education (which is often associated with social studies). Equally, others believed that the civic education program was either "too informal, shallow or undefined." Those were a few students and teachers and one administrator. Many of the groups also agreed that the sports and out of school programs were the best means of civic education (with the exception of JROTC and government class). Most students and administrators and one teacher agreed to this fact. Furthermore, all of the groups (almost categorically) cited the international cultural environment as one of the main strengths of the school. Yet, with the exception of the JROTC program (which was mentioned by one teacher a few students), none of the interviewed attributed this strength due to anything that either the teachers or administrators were doing. In fact, many students expressed the point that they have "liberalized their personal value systems" due to the student-to-student interaction. Most stakeholders referenced this point of view. Some students expressed an interest in their communities or politics due to the Debate Club; however, this did not influence how they perceived international student interaction at the school. In essence, the intermingling of student and teacher culture exchange was perceived to be happening. This provided a benefit because there was intercultural learning happening, however, also a detriment in that the school was not controlling the process or improving upon it. Some students and teachers wanted to see

more "intermingling of international students" at the school whereas most administrators wanted to see "more intermingling of international teachers at the school." On the other hand, a few students wanted "more out of school international interactions" (with other schools throughout Europe) which included the support of a couple of administrators. No teachers voiced support for this initiative.

One important element defining a school is the nature of the interaction between students and teachers (Grant, 2016). Students and teachers mostly perceived that there was a "positive learning environment" between students and teachers. Some students also commented on a positive environment between student-to-students, however, no teachers commented on this topic. A noteworthy point is that administrators did not give feedback at all in this area. They did not describe if the learning environment at the school was a positive environment from student to student or teacher to student. This has implications in a positive work environment (Kelm & McIntosh, 2012) in that administrators should support a positive work environment for better student learning. This creates a question to if administrators perceive the learning environment at the school to be positive or negative or if maybe they had not considered this point.

Additionally, there seemed to be a real need for service-learning at this international school. Some administrators, most teachers, and many students found this as a major improvement possibility for the school. Those same individuals would like to get engaged in the local national community using service-learning as the instructional vehicle.

Some other points are evident when comparing all the groups' responses. First, the administrators tended to respond primarily from an international mindedness with the exception of one administrator. This demonstrated that their focus was primarily on global citizenship/civic education. Furthermore, they found student adaptability to be the most important skill for the students to learn from this international school's civic environment which is a quality needed for

global citizenship. One point here is that there was a strong belief that students were developing a sense of "global citizenship empathy" by most stakeholders.

There also seemed to be a strong consensus that courses could help to stimulate the understanding of life skills. Some respondents believed life skills were lacking in curriculum options at this international school. This was not national dependent (i.e. nationality did not change this perception). Some students and teachers and an administrator voiced concern about this topic. What is noteworthy is that the majority of students observed needing life skills as an important issue; however, this perception became less evident the higher the leadership spectrum at this international school.

At the same time, the majority of students also spoke about the "international environment as one of their most important learning areas of the school." Teachers, on the other hand, placed less stress on the international environment as only a couple of teachers felt this was important for a student's learning. One educator surmised this was because teachers "focused more on curriculum" than other learning environments. Some educators referenced the course standards as hampering a deviation from their curriculum. A couple teachers felt "compelled to teach national citizenship as a result of their curriculum requirements."

One administrator felt it important to note that students did not get enough control of their own learning. This administrator believed that students "should be given more empowerment in what they learn and how they learn." Most of the students and teachers did not express the same sentiment.

Many of the interviewees perceived that there was "tension" between the different national representatives. They felt that communication was lacking between the different international representatives (primarily management) and that people allowed their "personalities" and/or "national interests to cloud their willingness" to work across the different nationalities. Those educators that expressed this perception also tended to speak of the fact that

educators were trained with national curricula and were then expected to work in international environments in essence creating a mismatch of training to work. This was in direct opposition to a few administrators that felt that all national representatives were doing the best they could within their given national working framework. Furthermore, there seemed to be an interest in having teachers "model better civic behavior for students." A few students and teachers and most administrators voiced this concern.

In summary, it would seem that there were few areas that respondents disagreed on in terms of how the school presently operates. There were some slight deviations with some groups indicating that they placed the burden of improvement on the other groupings, in particular teachers and students believed that "administrators could provide more support for civic education" and administrators and students believed that teachers could provide more support for civic education. Furthermore, it would also seem that most interviewees agreed on how to improve the school. Most believed that there was a need to enhance international cooperation within the school, develop a student service-learning program and connect with more schools outside of the local area.

Chapter Five: Implications for Practice, a Model of Participatory Civic Education

The purpose of this study is to discover stakeholder perspectives of the civic education program at an international school in Europe.

The final chapter of this dissertation has been written to integrate the relationship of the findings from the interviews to the literature with implications for education practices at this international school. A model civic education program has been customized for the school with sample goals to help guide school in the transition to a new civic education program. A section on future research has also been included, which incorporates a sample model for civic education implementation at an international school.

Implications for Practice

Participatory Civic Education Program

The primary question of this study was to discover what type of civic education program is perceived by the different stakeholders to exist at this international school. Researchers (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004) have provided definitions of what different civic education programs typically entail. Westheimer and Kahne's study, commissioned by the U.S. Department of Education, divided civic education programs into three different model civic education programs (note that in this section only the first two definitions are utilized as they pertain to this study while in the literature review all definitions are present). Those civic education models are the (a) personally responsible citizen and (b) participatory citizen. In a personally responsible citizen civic education program, the student learns that they should demonstrate community responsibility such as picking up litter, paying taxes, and obeying the laws of the land. This type of "personally responsible" student might be encouraged to volunteer in the community

(Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). A civic education program in this category is used to teach students personal responsibility and character education through the development of honesty, integrity, self-control and productiveness. This type of person typically volunteers time, but does not necessarily create opportunities to help the community. Based on the interviewees' responses, this defines the civic education program at this particular international school. Yet, most stakeholders at this international school were not satisfied with this type of program. Most stakeholders at this international school preferred a participatory citizen civic education program. A (b) participatory citizen is a person that operates actively in civic affairs and is immersed in the social life of the community at local, state and national levels (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Students in this "participatory" program learn about how government and civic institutions such as churches operate. The students would learn to focus their energies on organizing efforts such as changing school policies. In a sense, the student would learn about civic institutions in order to use those institutions for change. The participatory student would organize events such as food drives as opposed to the personally responsible citizen, who would volunteer for an organized event. Commonly cited proponents of civic education such as Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin and John Dewey have all supported a civic education modeled after the participatory citizen (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). At this international school, the vast majority of the participants interviewed suggested a participatory citizen model for the school's civic education program.

Model for Civic Education

To help guide the development of a robust civic education program, a model has been developed which has been customized for this international school. This model borrows from the literature and is derived from the interviewee responses. In particular, Cogan and Dericott's (2014) work on multidimensional citizenship education has been helpful in guiding the

development of the different components of the civic education program. In this work, Cogan and Dericott prescribe that a successful civic education program should include (a) curriculum and pedagogy, (b) governance and organization and (c) school community relations. (a)

“Curriculum and pedagogy” are the curriculum and service-learning components of this model.

(b) *“Governance and organization” is the administrative support component of the model.* (c)

Finally, “School community relations” are included in the character education component of this model (Cogan & Dericott, 2014).

According to Meyers & Nulty (2009) there are five student learning outcomes that should be used to maximize student learning. These should be integrated in the teaching and learning materials, tasks and experiences in order to further a student's education. They are (a) authentic and relevant learning, (b) sequential and inter-linked curricula, (c) the utilization of higher level thinking skills, (d) alignment with desired learning outcomes and (e) a challenging environment with a motivational element to support learning. In this case, I propose to use relevant outcomes as the students want to engage the local community through service learning. There would also be inter-linked outcomes as students apply their skills immediately through character education and global citizenship skills. There would be an alignment of courses through civic education being inserted into the curriculum through curriculum changes. There would also be a challenging environment through rigorous service-learning opportunities. Finally, an educational leadership component has been designed in order to support the civic education program.

Core Components

The following are the core components of the civic education program at this international school: (1) character education, (2) service-learning, (3) curriculum development and (4) administrative support.

Character Education

Character education, according to Noddings (1997; 2013), should be used to portray values by a society, while simultaneously instruct a student in educational literature. This could be introduced to students with fables, stories and traditions and later built upon with curricular activities. In character education at this international school, the stakeholders identify the core values of the school. The school leadership team then supports teaching and reinforces those values. Those values in the form of school morals should permeate the learning environment such as the classroom, cafeteria, sports event or school function (Haynes, 1994). Ryan (1996, p. 75) states that morals are "caught, not taught" as the classroom life provides for a moral meaning that shapes students' character and moral development.

Some administrators and teachers suggested that an additional emphasis on character education is needed for the school, as they perceived it to be too little or not at all present in the curriculum. A few students had wished that they learned positive character traits and how to handle relationships while at this international school. While many of the students, teachers and administrators noted the exceptional positive learning environment between teachers and students, most interviewees did not see this translating into civic education. There were, however, some non-curricular character education lessons mentioned by students. Students gave examples of student-to-student interactions where they had learned to become more tolerant of different lifestyles and opinions. For example, the European alumni spoke of developing an understanding of gun ownership from interaction with North American students. North American alumni also mentioned that gay rights were important because they had understood different points of view as a result of student-to-student interactions with European students.

Consequently, a major question the school needs to answer is what character traits they wish students to emulate as citizens of this international school. According to the respondents, many learned empathy for other opinions and tolerance for other cultures. Yet, students indicated

to have learned this from student-to-student interaction and not from formal teacher education.

This international school should address this situation through teacher and administrator interventions and instruction. Specifically, educators could include more lessons on tolerance in their curricula and give opportunities to students in their classes so they can discuss topics of opposing viewpoints. Administrators could foster character education by developing more in school opportunities for students to meet (e.g. to have more peer-to-peer interactions) and by supporting teacher character education efforts (e.g. by permitting curricular deviations). Yet, other character education skills are also important for the civically minded student. Avery (2011) suggests that deliberation would be an important skill for all students to learn. This particular skill makes use of tolerance and empathy to help students learn to come to an agreeable solution between opposing opinions. Critical thinking might be another important quality for the school to explore (Nieto, 2004). These skills build upon the tolerance and empathy that students develop by learning from opposing viewpoint discussions. Furthermore, in building upon these skills, the school could explore global mindedness (Hett, 1993; Golay, 2006) which would help students to learn new ideas and concepts with the addition of humility.

In summary, developing a civic education program that includes character education by teaching skills such as critical thinking, tolerance, empathy and deliberation is important in developing a robust civic education program at this international school.

Global Citizenship

Much research has connected global citizenship to character education (Narvaez, Bock, Endicott & Lies, 2004; Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Berkowitz, Althof & Jones, p. 403). Some have even considered multiculturalism a threat, making the teaching of global citizenship and its importance to society a critical component of a civic education program (Barber, 2012). Yet, this did not seem to be an issue for the stakeholders at this international school. In fact, virtually all

respondents were clear that they perceived the school to be a positive environment where cultures blended unimpeded. Yet, most felt that they wanted to see more international cultural activities and intercultural experiences at this international school. Most literature (Gavento & Mayo, 2009) supports that global working environments should include global citizenship value education. This would play well into the administrators' perceptions of the school, as they already tended to view global citizenship to be one of the most important aspects of the school. This is as opposed to national citizenship, which is already supported throughout the curriculum at this international school (ISS, Personal Communication, 2015). Furthermore, students already support global citizenship in their personal value systems based on respondent interviews. Teachers on the other hand are focused on their curriculum as evidenced through their responses (with the exception of two educators whom voiced strong support for global citizenship values). The curriculum at this international school, for most courses, typically does not include global citizenship instruction. As a result, global citizenship values are not a priority for teachers. Therefore, the school needs teacher "buy-in" for showing students the benefits of global citizenship. This could be demonstrated through training in the benefits of global citizenship values in complement with national values or by inviting intercultural guest lecturers and most importantly through creating long-term international education exchanges such as the European Council of International Schools or more exposure to the Comenius Project. In effect, an international educational program for the teachers would have to be created to support an initiative driving the school from national to global citizenship values (DeJaeghere, 2009). Ongoing student programs would have to be adjusted as well, such as changing the National Honor Society chapter to an international "National" Honors Society chapter. Students would need to have many opportunities to mingle with other nationalities, which is also one of their main preferences. If students and teachers have international working environments supporting by the administration, then it is highly likely that global citizenship would be well supported by

teachers and other school stakeholders. Finally, a practical means of encouraging students to practice global citizenship in their community could be to include the Global Citizenship Diploma (Global Citizen Diploma, 2015). This diploma is created so that students have the opportunity to reflect on their experience at the school, demonstrate their commitment to global citizenship principles, and show commitment to deal with global issues. It would be in addition to the regular high school diploma students receive, but this would be a means of the school showing support for their civically engaged students.

Service-Learning

Most stakeholders regardless of national background unanimously stated that they wanted to have a service-learning program at this international school. Service-learning involves the teaching and learning for students so they could adopt civic responsibilities (Battisoni, 2017). The service provided should benefit both the receiver and the student (Furco, 1996). Yet, some researchers in civic education have found that differing cultures have competing views of civic education and ultimately of what civic service means (McBride, Sherraden, Benitez & Johnson, 2004). Therefore, the school would need to have the different stakeholders come to a consensus on what defines civic education and civic service. The literature illustrates that the outcomes of service-learning programs can range from peace and international understanding, to improved job skills and education, to sustained civic engagement (Hajdo, 1999; Omo-Abu, 1997; Perry & Katula, 2001; M. Sherraden, 2001; M. Sherraden, Sherraden, & Eberly, 1990; Dibie, 2014). Furthermore, research by Smetger and Smetana (2009) has shown that there is positive behavior amplification among adolescents if they are involved in community projects and extracurricular programs. Therefore, it must be considered that a robust service-learning program could help this international school to connect both with the community outside the school and could help develop service-learning skills which are in demand by students, teachers, and administrators

(Furco & Root, 2010; Kahne & Sporte, 2008). This initiative, if adopted by the school, would align the school with civic education literature (Furco, 1996; Battistoni, 2017) and would help serve its stakeholders by addressing their requests. This program should involve all nationalities and all levels of schooling (i.e. elementary and secondary). For example, a number of formal classes could be created to provide students with the opportunity to learn about their civic responsibilities. The high school could include three classes taught by different nationalities so curricular input could vary for student learning exposure. At the middle school, students could learn from a rotational course about different civic responsibilities and at the elementary school, students could be taught about modeling civic behavior. The involvement in the community should be student driven (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004), which is one of the requests by some of the interviewees. Some opportunities could be that elementary kids volunteer at retirement homes (e.g. monthly visits or seasonal celebrations), middle school students could volunteer at local orphanages and lead student driven donation initiatives (note that students would also be involved in disseminating the donations). High school students could lead a more international experience by working together with a number of local national schools in a developing country or create a student led volunteer organization (for local civic engagement). The high school students would be charged with solving a problem by working with peers from other nations. A critical component of service-learning, which is often overlooked is that the students need to have the opportunity to discuss their experiences together in an open forum (O'Grady, 2014). Therefore, students need to have multiple opportunities to discuss their experiences and share with each other important (potentially life changing) happenings while serving. This could be done closer to the end of the academic term so that the discussions would be more meaningful.

Curriculum Development

The students seemed to be more aware of a civic education program being present at the school in comparison to the professional educators. In fact, most educators could not identify a civic education program at this international school. Furthermore, in the case of the teachers, most did not know what other teachers were doing in terms of civic education. Additionally, the teachers and administrators seemed to be confused on how to define civic education. The teachers were more focused on their curriculum and the administrators were more focused on the international mingling of students with the absence of teacher influence. Jones et al (1999) found that teachers tend to focus on material that they test as opposed to having higher-level conversations with students. According to Leming (2000), these higher-level conversations are important for students to understand civic education.

Due to the a differing in opinions between both educator groups, a different question worth exploring could be to what extent do students learn civic education at this international school? Most students described extra-curricular experiences such as sports or the Debate Club as the primary civic education vehicle at this international school. The literature, however, is clear in that most researchers suggest that a robust civic education program should include teacher instruction with civic instruction (Niemi & Junn, 2005). It became clear after the interviews were conducted that most stakeholders expressed an interest in having a robust civic education experience at the school (Galston, 2004). This experience Conway, Amel and Gerwien (2009) suggest should also include practical means of "applying" civic education such as through a service-learning program. These practical means should not be instead of curricular reforms, however, but in conjunction with curricular reforms. Some researchers (Conway & Amel & Gerwien, 2009) contend that a civic education curriculum is necessary in order to support a robust service-learning program. Therefore, this international school should encourage teachers to address this issue by implementing curricular reforms that would include civic education in the

classroom. One manner at doing so would be to develop a program to where a monthly civic education theme is created and disseminated to all teachers (the themes should be created by a mixture of stakeholders). Teachers would be encouraged to focus their lessons on that theme. An example could be to nominate December as the month of "altruism." Students would focus on what altruism is and how to envision "acting out" altruism. One activity could be donating toys to a local orphanage. Most importantly, as mentioned earlier, students (i.e. not adults) should select the activity that corresponds with the month in order to support the participatory program.

Another important addition to the curriculum would be a comparative value course (Robison, 1998). This course would allow students to explore different cultures in terms of religion, practices and belief systems. This could be similar to "Comparative Values & Belief Systems" from South Eugene High School in Oregon (Byrd & Byrd, 2013).

Administrative Support

For the civic education program to be successful, there must be administrative support (Seashore, Dretzke & Wahlstrom, 2010). Suggestions are given for educational leadership initiatives and quality assurance in order to ensure a robust civic education program is developed for this international school.

Educational Leadership

Some researchers have found that administrators tend to focus more on administrative tasks than instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). For example, only a couple of administrators knew of some character education being taught at the school. They expressed that only one teacher was teaching character education. There was some sense that the JROTC program was involved in community activities and thus also teaching "some" character education. These administrators felt that they did not see other teachers implementing character education or a civic education curriculum in their classroom. This would suggest that either most

administrators do not have a complete picture of the school environment or that educators do not focus on teaching civic related topics with their students. Furthermore, it would seem that most administrators are tending to administrative duties instead of spending time influencing civic education instruction. This was evident from student and teacher responses whenever they did not know how the administration influenced the civic education curriculum. Professor Seashore (Seashore, Dretzke & Wahlstrom, 2010) once stated that the administrator is the second most important person affecting a student's learning after the teacher. This means that more could be done by the administration in order to help support teachers and students in civic education. In particular, Darling-Hammond (1997) suggests that teachers need joint planning, study groups (professional learning communities), peer coaching and opportunities for research. This could be facilitated by the school administration in order to support the civic education program (Hammond, 1997). In the case of the civic education program at this international school, this should be in an international setting, as this meets the stakeholder's request for more international interaction. A professional learning community (Nelson, Lebard & Waters, 2010) under the guise of an international study group or book club could help nurture international cooperation among different cultures and hierarchies at the school. This could also allow for an informal teacher peer-to-peer coaching network to be established within the school (Hammond, 1997).

Furthermore, the exploration of cultures as a cohort could be a professional learning community (PLC) which would strengthen the foundation of the civic education program (Dufour & Eaker, 2010; Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009). Fortunately, the school does commit to some intercultural exchanges already. There are yearly events held such as the "international staff intercultural day" and the "international STEAM day" (and the prior mentioned Comenius Project). Yet, most educators would prefer a vehicle within the school that has all stakeholders meet over regular intervals throughout the year. An international teacher council (which already exists) could be strengthened with duties such as planning intercultural training events and

hosting professional intercultural seminars at the school. Yet none of these suggested remedies can be accomplished without administrative backing and support. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to have educational leadership from the school's management team.

Quality Assurance

One manner at creating a sustainable civic education program at this international school is to embed it in the continuous school improvement (CSI) plan (Schmoker, 2004). This would help develop interest within the school as people can tie the civic education initiative within the school and create overall school goals that can be attainable through rigorous review and training. Connecting the civic education program with the CSI program would furthermore be helpful in developing more educator buy-in for the civic education program (Schmoker, 2004). An example could be to create a goal that is aligned with problem solving. This goal would include civic education values such as empathy, global mindedness and deliberation. These are all skills that work well with problem solving (Henderson, 2016).

There should also be a management drive for symbolism and structural changes according to Bolman and Deal (2008) as both are powerful drivers of successful school cultures. In making structural changes by "internationalizing" the campus (which has been partially done) and organizing national educators in subject area in the secondary as opposed to national affiliation, this would help lessen cultural barriers and increase international cooperation (Bolman & Deal, 2008). This would also celebrate international interconnectiveness between the different educators.

This international school has the opportunity to make a customized civic education program for its stakeholders. Yet, in creating a custom civic education program, the school should have specific and attainable goals in order to achieve a high quality program (Lawlor &

Hornyak, 2012). These goals are specific to this international school and thus not generalizable to other schools.

The following are suggested goals for the school based on the suggestions within this study. The first phase would be school culture that would help develop the foundation for the school's civic education program. The second phase would build upon the first phase and the final phase would be the realization of a fully functioning civic education program.

Year 1

School Civic Culture (school year 2018-19)

Goal 1: Stakeholders convene an international committee (with at least one representative from every nation) to develop a common definition of civic education. The definition should be prominently displayed throughout the school and on the internet. This should be completed by December 2018.

Goal 2: Stakeholders convene an international committee (with at least one representative from every nation) to develop and define civic values for this international school. They should have less than ten civic values and should include those mentioned in this study (e.g. deliberation, problem solving, etc.). The values should be prominently displayed throughout the school and online. This is to be completed by December 2018.

Goal 3: Structural changes to the school would include national educators would be given classrooms according to their subject area (at the secondary level). At the elementary level, teachers would be organized according to grade level and not nationality. There should also be a visual celebration of cultures via flags and cultural insignia shown prominently throughout the school. This should be completed by June 2019.

Goal 4: Current co and extra-curricular activities would be reviewed and revised in order to align them with the civic education program (e.g. Debate Club, sports and international celebration

days). This would be at the elementary and secondary levels. This should be completed by June 2018.

Year 2

Transitional Actions (school year 2019-20)

Goal 5: Integrate the civic education definition and values into the curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular curricula and programs. This should be completed by June 2020.

Goal 6: Adapt the school's CSI to include civic education within the goals. At least one goal would need to be adjusted. This would involve all national stakeholders. This should be completed by December 2019 with eventual modification by June 2020.

Goal 7: Convene an international council of at least one educator from each national curriculum. Subsequently, create monthly civic education themes. An example would be to make December as the month of altruism. This should be completed by January 2019 and be implemented throughout the second semester. This could be revised in June 2019 to better target the school's stakeholder needs.

Year 3

Model Participatory Program (school year 2020-21)

Goal 8: Develop service-learning programs for elementary and high schools. The program planning should be completed by December 2020 and the first experiences should be completed by May 2021 to give enough time for reflection.

Goal 9: Support new and ongoing international cultural exchange programs (for staff and students). These programs should begin in August 2020 and continue from then on (these should include the programs already reviewed in goals 4 and 7).

Goal 10: Provide recognition to students for their civic engagement/service-learning (e.g. give students a civic engagement "award" in conjunction with diploma). This would be at the time of graduation, June 2021.

Goal 11: Develop and support PLCs for educators for intercultural learning and understanding.

These PLCs should be implemented by January 2021 to allow for needed changes by June 2021.

Goal 12: Include in the monthly civic education an event that is appropriate to the theme (e.g.

December, the month of altruism would involve students donating canned goods to a local

orphanage). This could be different for the different grade levels. The monthly events should

begin by December 2021 and should include a disparate number of educators covering all grade

levels and nationalities.

Limitations and Delimitations

Since this was a case study, it is primarily applicable to this international school. This research, however, could be a useful tool for policy makers, researchers and practitioners in making evaluations of civic education in international schooling environments. Most importantly, according to Yin (2013), generalization from this research "can lead to theoretical propositions" which is what the suggested civic education model from this study represents.

The second limitation was that the writer of this dissertation is also a faculty member at this international school, which meant that there could be a level of bias in the research.

Another hurdle in this study was dealing with the bureaucracy involved in the school. Given that this was a government run school (comprising different national curricula), problems were with the ministry of defenses of different countries, many different players (e.g. superintendents, principals, teachers, the union, etc.), and juggling the teacher and administrator priorities with extracurricular and academically engaging activities such as sports, advanced placement courses, family and traveling.

Future Research

Based on the conclusions of the study, a number of future studies for the inclusion of civic education programs in schools could be explored by researchers. In particular, little research has been committed to how civic education could be applied to the international school environment. Furthermore, tracer studies could be completed in order to assess the outcomes of this study (Yin, 2013). Some potential additional research areas could be (a) international school civic education models, (b) developing a sample framework for a civic education program at an international school, (c) global citizenship and civic education and (d) international school service-learning.

International School Civic Education Models

Schultz (2009) found that there is too little research being conducted on international schools as opposed to national schools. This could lead to less innovation in the international school environment. This also has an impact on international school organization models. At present, there are few international school organizational models (e.g. International Baccalaureate) that schools could select as school framework in order to develop an unique profile (ICEF Monitor, 2014; Hirsch, 2016; Lijadi & van Schalkwyk, 2016; Karras, 2016). There are over 7000 international schools with over 3.5 million students worldwide, generating over \$35 billion per year of income. Of that number, 2.5 million are local nationals attending international schools and the remaining 1 million are expat children (ICEF Monitor, 2014). The prediction is that by 2024 there will be over 12,000 international schools, generating over \$62 billion per year while serving over 6.9 million students (ICEF Monitor, 2014). It would seem that given the large numbers of schools and students, that more would question the need for a civic education driven model, which at present is not a popular *modus operandi* for international schools. Kidwell (2013) suggested that global civic education should be a priority for schools, as

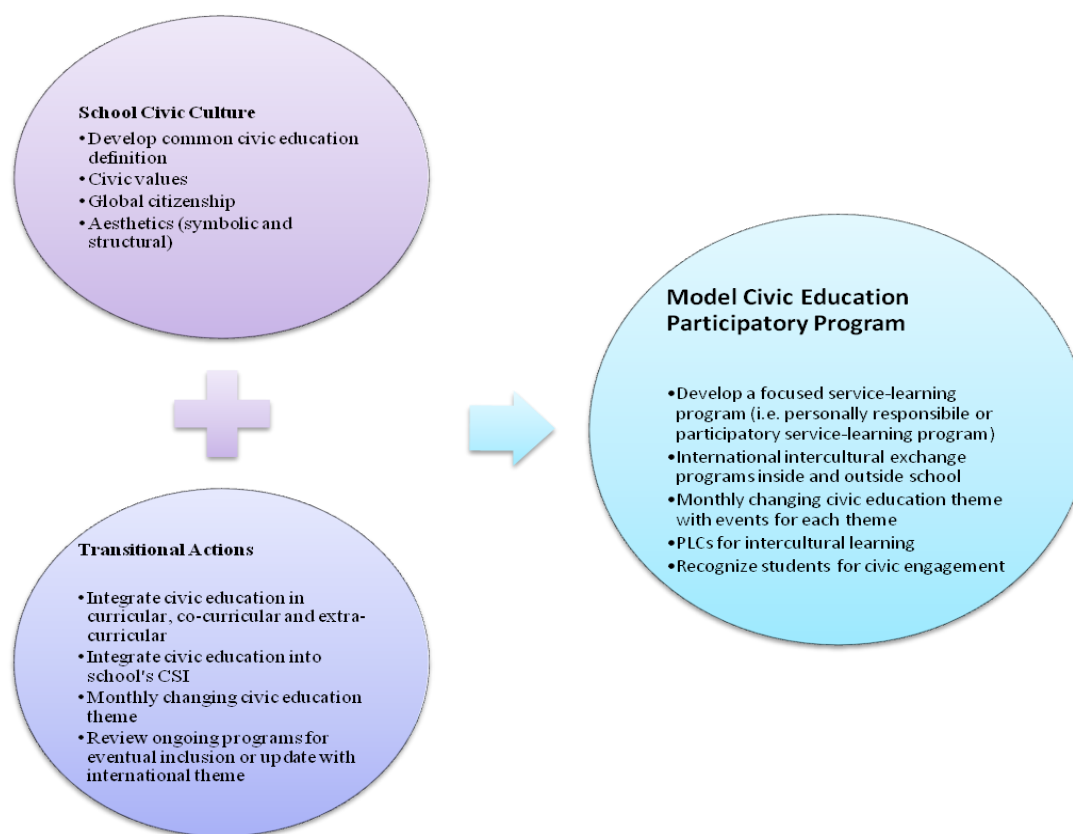
nations are becoming increasingly interdependent causing for more political and economic friction to have spillover from nation to nation. While the prior mentioned Global Citizen Diploma (Global Citizen Diploma, 2015) could be a good step forward, more could be done. The Global Citizen Diploma's focus is primarily on social justice issues and is not inclusive of the participative citizen model that was described at the beginning of this chapter. Therefore, how could schools go forward? I recommend that schools consider developing a whole school framework that is founded upon civic education principles (using the definition of this dissertation) and that building on that framework a school develops its curriculum and organizational model. This framework could look different for each international school as each school may serve a different student population. For example, some schools might have a student body comprised solely of international students while others have a mixture of international and local students. Some schools also espouse different value systems such as a religiously affiliated school as opposed to a non-religious international school. Schools also have different staffing needs and cultures such as a school that has an educator mix of nationalities or another international school that only has one-nation specific educators. Finally, the local area provides a situation for international schools with different conditions such as an international school in a Sub-Saharan country would have different living and working conditions as opposed to an international school in Europe.

Sample Framework of a Participatory Civic Education Program

Many suggestions have been made for this international school and how it can change the manner at which civic education is taught at the school. Yet, how could other international schools implement civic education in their schools? The suggestions have been included in a singular graphic (see Figure 1) to make explicit the changes needed for a robust civic education program at a school. The changes as demonstrated in the graphic are not singular or independent

of each other. It is therefore suggested to build the foundation of the civic education program first, to where the civic education program is a sustainable dynamic fluid program.

Figure 1- Sample Civic Education Model



Global Citizenship and Civic Education

Combining "global citizenship" and "civic education" into one definition (Reysen & Katzarska-Miller, 2013) is a difficult endeavor for most international schools. This is because some international schools serve local populations and others serve primarily international students. This makes the difficulty of finding a common definition for civic education more challenging. For the purposes of this study, global citizenship is considered a "component" of character education as it serves this international school in this context. Other schools might find

that global citizenship has a more important role or that it is a component of civic education or the primary "driver" of civic education.

Global Service-Learning

Another important question that should be answered by researchers is to how international schools should attempt the service-learning component of civic education. In using the definition from Furco (1996) and Battistoni (2017), the service-learning program should help students adopt civic responsibilities while providing a benefit to both the receiver of the service and the student. This international school's interviewees almost unanimously wanted to be more engaged in the local community through a service-learning program (although some also wanted to be involved in places beyond just the local area). Is it appropriate for an international school to have students get involved locally? If so, in what capacity? For example, if a school were to select the "justice-oriented" civic education program model (Kahne & Westheimer, 2004), would the local community accept a group of international teenagers trying to change local customs? An example could be a group of international students trying to address the tobacco issue in Indonesia (Septiono & Kunst, 2016). Would local Indonesians accept interventions suggested by a group of students? Would developed and developing nations react differently to international school engagement in the local community? These are questions that each international school should answer according to its own school model, local culture, and school culture.

Conclusion : Final Reflections

In conclusion, an international school has a unique intercultural environment. This environment has shaped the school culture in which key stakeholders have the opportunity to implement a new participatory civic education program. While there has been little attention given to civic education at international schools, the stakeholders appear to be motivated to adopt a robust civic education program. Therefore, it would seem that now is the time to make the change in school culture so that this international school's students can be successful in a global environment. This experience could be an important motivator for other schools worldwide; even if this is a single case, qualitative dissertation and is not statistically generalizable. The ultimate question that should be answered by schools is what their mission is for society. Are schools nurturing a skill-based society thereby creating personally responsible citizens? Are schools creating citizens who should be participatory in their society in addition to the skills needed to succeed in a global environment? I contend that creating an informed citizenry is an important task of schooling and thus an important objective for all schools. The intercultural environment that defines an international school makes for a more interesting and compelling form of civic education. Ultimately, those students who are learning in school are tomorrow's leaders so an overarching and highly important duty of a school is to create informed citizens with skills needed to be successful in an increasingly globalized and multicultural world. A robust and rigorous civic education program could do just that.

References

- Adler, R. P., & Goggin, J. (2005). What do we mean by “civic engagement”? *Journal of Transformative Education*, 3(3), 236-253.
- Almond, GA & Verba, S. 1963. *The civic culture: Political attitudes and democracy in five nations*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Anderson, T. J. (2010). *The dynamic components of citizenship education and student engagement: Lessons for leaders and educators*. ProQuest LLC. 789 East Eisenhower Parkway, PO Box 1346, Ann Arbor, MI 48106.
- Astin, A. W. (1985). *Achieving academic excellence: A critical assessment of priorities and practices in higher education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Avery, P. G. (2007). Civic education in the United States: Increased challenges. *Citizenship Teaching and Learning*, 3(2), 22-39.
- Avery, P. G. (2011). Deliberation as a core part of teacher education and civics classrooms. *Enseñanza de las ciencias sociales: revista de investigación*, (10), 11-21.
- Avery, P. G., & Simmons, A. M. (2008, March). Results from a three-year evaluation of teachers and students participating in the Deliberating in a Democracy Project. *In annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York* (Vol. 25).
- Au, W. (2007). High-stakes testing and curricular control: A qualitative metasynthesis. *Educational Researcher*, 36(5), 258-267.
- Bahmueller, C. (1999). Principals and practices of education for democratic citizenship: International perspectives and projects. US: ERIC.
- Bakhtiari, S., & Shajar, H. (2011). Globalization and education: Challenges and opportunities. *International Business & Economics Research Journal (IBER)*, 5(2).
- Banks, J. A. (2008). Diversity, group identity, and citizenship education in a global age. *Educational researcher*, 37(3), 129-139.
- Banks, J.A. (2015). Failed citizenship, civic engagement, and education. *Kappa Delta Pi*, 51(4), 151-154.
- Barber BR. 1984. *Strong democracy: Participatory politics for a new age*. Berkeley: Univ. Calif. Press
- Barber, B. (2012). Can we teach civic education and service learning in a world of privatization, inequality, and interdependence? *Journal of College and Character*, 13(1), 1–10.
- Battistoni, R. M. (2017). *Civic engagement across the curriculum: A resource book for service-learning faculty in all disciplines*. Stylus Publishing, LLC.
- Bell, D., 2009. Communitarianism. In: Zalta, N. (Ed.), *Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy*. Available at <http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2009/entries/communitarianism>.
- Bennett, W. L. (2008). Changing citizenship in the digital age. *Civic life online: Learning how digital media can engage youth*, 1, 1-24.
- Bennett, L. W. *Civic Life online: Learning how digital media can engage youth*, New York: MacArthur Foundation
- Bennett, W. L., Wells, C., & Rank, A. (2009). Young citizens and civic learning: Two paradigms of citizenship in the digital age. *Citizenship Studies*, 13(2), 105-120.
- Berkowitz, M. W. (2002). The science of character education. In W. Damon (Ed.), *Bringing in a new era in character education* (pp. 43–63). Stanford, CA: Hoover Institution Press.
- Berkowitz, M.W., Althof, W., & Jones, S. (2008). Educating for civic character. In J. Arthur, I. Davies, & C. Hahn (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 399–409). London: Sage.
- Berelson BR, Lazarsfeld PF, McPhee WN. 1954. *Voting: A study of opinion formation in a presidential campaign*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Berger, B. (2015). Experience and (civic) education. *PS: Political Science & Politics*, 48(1), 61-64.
- Biesta, G. (2008). What kind of citizen? What kind of democracy? Citizenship education and the Scottish curriculum for excellence. *Scottish Educational Review*, 40(2), 38-52.
- Billig, S. H. (2004) Heads, hearts, hands: the research on K-12 service-learning, in: J. C. Kielsmeyer (Ed.) *Growing to greatness 2004. The state of service-learning project* (St. Paul, MN, National Youth Leadership Council), 12–25.

- Bobek, D., Zaff, J., Li, Y., & Lerner, R. M. (2009). Cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components of civic action: Towards an integrated measure of civic engagement. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 30*(5), 615-627.
- Bolman, L. G. and Deal, T. E. (2008). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bos, A. L., Williamson, I., Sullivan, J. L., Gonzales, M. H., & Avery, P. G. (2007). The price of rights: High school students' civic values and behaviors. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 37*(6), 1265-1284.
- Bowen, G. L., Martin, J. A., Mancini, J. A., & Nelson, J. P. (2001). Civic engagement and sense of community in the military. *Journal of Community Practice, 9*(2), 71-93.
- Boyer, E. L. (1990). Civic education for responsible citizens. *Educational Leadership, 48*(3), 4-7.
- Boyte, Harry C., & James Farr. 1997. The work of citizenship and the problem of service-learning. In *Experiencing citizenship: Concepts and models for service-learning in political science*, ed. Richard M. Battistoni and William E. Hudson, 35–48. Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.
- Boyte, H. C. (2005). Reframing democracy: Governance, civic agency, and politics. *Public Administration Review, 65*(5), 536-546.
- Boyte, H. C. (2008). Against the current: Developing the civic agency of students. *Change: The magazine of Higher Learning, 40*(3), 8-15.
- Boyte, H. C. (2015). Reinventing citizenship as public work. In H. Boyte (Ed.), *Democracy's education: Public work, citizenship, and the future of colleges and universities* (pp. 1-33). Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press.
- Brand, J. E. (2010). Civic returns to higher education: A note on heterogeneous effects. *Social Forces, 89*(2), 417-433.
- Branson, M. (1998). *The role of civic education: A position paper*. Calabasas, CA: The Center for Civic Education Press
- Branson, M. S. (Director) (2005, September 13). Changes in political landscape and their implications for civic education. *German/American Conference*. Lecture conducted from Center for Civic Education, Freiburg, Germany.
- Branson, M. (2014, January 1). References. Retrieved February 16, 2015, from http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social_studies/references_civiced.html
- Bringle, R. G., & Steinberg, K. (2010). Educating for informed community involvement. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 46*(3-4), 428-441.
- Brown v. Board of Educ., 347 U.S. 483 (1954).
- Byrd, D. R., & Byrd, C. A. (2013). The role of dissonance and harmony in one L2 learner's identity development during a language camp experience abroad. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning, 3*(2), 40-57.
- Calreda, L. (2000). *Junior reserve officers' training corps program: organization, administration, operation, and support*. Washington, DC: Department of the Army.
- Carter, A. (2013, December 10). Instilling Global Citizenship within the International School Network. Retrieved March 15, 2015, from <http://www.globaleducationmagazine.com/instilling-global-citizenship-international-school-network/>
- CIRCLE Staff (2012). What do young adults know about politics? Evidence from a national survey conducted after the 2012 election [CIRCLE Factsheet], 2013. Available at <http://bit.ly/1hjC9DA>.
- CIRCLE Staff. (2013). The youth vote in 2012. Retrieved from http://www.civicyouth.org/wpcontent/uploads/2013/05/CIRCLE_2013FS_outhVoting2012FINAL.pdf.
- Citizen. (2015). *Dictionary.com Unabridged*. Retrieved February 16, 2015, from Dictionary.com website: <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/citizen>
- Cogan, J. J. (1999). Civic education in the United States: Brief history. *International Journal of Social Education, 14*(1), 52-64.
- Cogan, J.J. & Morris, P. (2001) The development of civics values: An overview, *International Journal of Educational Research, 35*(1), 1 - 9.

- Cogan, J.J., & Dericott, R. (Eds.). (2014). *Citizenship for 21st Century: An international perspective on education*. London, England: Routledge.
- Conover PJ, Crewe IM, Searing DD. 1991. The nature of citizenship in the United States and Great Britain: empirical comments on theoretical themes. *J. Polit.* 53:800–32
- Conover, P.J. & D.D. Searing (2000), A political socialisation perspective, in L.M. McDonnell, P.M. Timpane and R. Benjamin (eds.), *Rediscovering the Democratic Purposes of Education*, University Press of Kansas, Lawrence, KS, pp. 91-124.
- Conway, J. M., Amel, E. L., & Gerwien, D. P. (2009). Teaching and learning in the social context: A meta-analysis of service learning's effects on academic, personal, social, and citizenship outcomes. *Teaching of Psychology*, 36(4), 233-245.
- Cook, T. E. (1985). The bear market in political socialization and the costs of misunderstood psychological theories. *American Political Science Review*, 79, 1079–1093.
- Cini, M., & Borragán, N. P. S. (2016). *European union politics*. Oxford University Press.
- Craddock, A. (2005). Political education beyond national borders. *International Democratic Education Institute*, 1, 1-19.
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. 4th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crocetti, E., Jahromi, P., & Meeus, W. (2012). Identity and civic engagement in adolescence. *Journal of adolescence*, 35(3), 521-532.
- Crittenden, J. & Levine, P. (2013): Civic Education. In: Zalta, E. N. (ed.): The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy. <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/civic-education/>
- Dale, R., & Robertson, S. L. (2002). The varying effects of regional organizations as subjects of globalization of education. *Comparative education review*, 46(1), 10-36.
- Dalton, R. J. (2008). *The good citizen: How a younger generation is reshaping American politics*. SAGE.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *Doing what matters most: Investing in quality teaching*. National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, Kutztown Distribution Center, 15076 Kutztown Road, PO Box 326, Kutztown, PA 19530-0326.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Richardson, N. (2009). Research review/teacher learning: What matters. *Educational leadership*, 66(5), 46-53.
- Dee, T. S. (2004). Are there civic returns to education?. *Journal of Public Economics*, 88(9), 1697-1720.
- De Montesquieu, B. (1900). The spirit of the laws [1748]. *Trans. by T. Nugent. New York (Colonial Press)*, 238-9.
- Delisio, E. R. (2002). Department of Defense schools: Their secret weapons for success. *Education World*. Retrieved from http://www.educationworld.com/a_issues/issues349.shtml
- DeJaeghere, J. G. (2009). Critical citizenship education for multicultural societies. *Inter-American Journal of Education for Democracy*, 2(2), 222-236.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). *The handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- De Tocqueville, A. (1835). *Democracy in America* (G. Lawrence, Trans.). Garden City, NY: University of Chicago Press
- Dewey, J. (1944/1916). *Democracy and education*. New York: Free Press.
- Dey, I. (2003). *Qualitative data analysis: A user friendly guide for social scientists*. New York: Routledge.
- Dibie, R. A. (Ed.). (2014). *Comparative perspectives on environmental policies and issues*. New York: Routledge.
- Dionne, E.J., (2012). *Our divided political heart: The battle for the American idea in an age of discontent*. New York: Bloomsbury USA.
- Dorf, H. (2008). Citizenship education—between social inequality and the promises of modernity. *Social Work & Society*, 6(1), 56-71.
- Drummet, A. R., Coleman, M., & Cable, S. (2003). Military families under stress: Implications for family life education. *Family Relations*, 52(3), 279-287.
- Dudley, R. L., & Gitelson, A. R. (2003). Civic education, civic engagement, and youth civic development. *Political Science and Politics*, 36(2), 263-267.

- DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (Eds.). (2010). *On common ground: The power of professional learning communities*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.
- Eby, J. (1998). *Why service-learning is bad*. Service Learning. University of Nebraska.
- Einfeld, A., & Collins, D. (2008). The relationships between service-learning, social justice, multicultural competence, and civic engagement. *Journal of College Student Development*, 49(2), 95-109.
- Ellis, J., Small-McGinley, J., & De Fabrizio, L. (2001). *Caring for kids in communities: using mentorship, peer support, & student leadership programs in schools*. Counterpoint. Peter Lang Publishing.
- Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 62(1), 107-115.
- Engel, M. (2000). *The struggle for control of public education: Market ideology vs. democratic values*. Temple University Press.
- Engel, R. C., Gallagher, L. B., & Lyle, D. S. (2010). Military deployments and children's academic achievement: Evidence from Department of Defense Education Activity Schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(1), 73-82.
- Epstein, J. L., & McPartland, J. M. (1976). The concept and measurement of the quality of school life. *American Educational Research Journal*, 13(1), 15-30.
- Esqueda, M. C., Astor, R. A., & De Pedro, K. M. T. (2012). A call to duty educational policy and school Reform addressing the needs of children from military families. *Educational Researcher*, 41(2), 65-70.
- Etzioni, A. (2011). Citizenship in a communitarian perspective. *Ethnicities*, 11(3), 336-349.
- Felicia, P. (2011). *Handbook of research on improving learning and motivation through educational games: Multidisciplinary approaches: Multidisciplinary approaches*. IGI Global. Hershey, PA.
- Flanagan, C., & Levine, P. (2010). Civic engagement and the transition to adulthood. *The Future of Children*, 20(1), 159-179.
- Fine, M. (2004). *Advancing the Civic Mission of Schools: What Schools, Districts, and State and Federal Leaders Can Do*. Washington, D.C.: AED and USAID.
- Finkel, S. E. (2002). Civic education and the mobilization of political participation in developing democracies. *The journal of Politics*, 64(04), 994-1020.
- Finkel, S. E., & Ernst, H. R. (2005). Civic education in post-apartheid South Africa: Alternative paths to the development of political knowledge and democratic values. *Political Psychology*, 26(3), 333-364.
- Fullan, M. (2011). *Choosing the wrong drivers for whole system reform* (pp. 3-4). East Melbourne: Centre for Strategic Education.
- Furco, A. (1996) Service learning: A balanced approach to experiential education. *Expanding Boundaries: Service and Learning*, 1-6.
- Furco, A. (2002). High school service-learning and the preparation of students for college: An overview of research. In E. Zlotkowski (Ed.), *Service-learning and the first-year experience: Preparing students for personal success and civic responsibility* (Monograph No 34, (pp. 3-14). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina, National Resource Center For The First Year Experience & Students In Transition.
- Furco, A., & Billig, S. (2002). *Service learning: The essence of the pedagogy*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- Furco, A., & Root, S. (2010). Research demonstrates the value of service learning. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 91(5), 16-20.
- Galston, W.A. (2001). "Political knowledge, political engagement, and civic education." *Annual Review of Political Science* 4, 214-34
- Galston, W. A. (2004). Civic education and political participation. *Political Science and Politics*, 37(02), 263-266.
- Gaventa, J., & Mayo, M. (2009). Spanning citizenship spaces through transnational coalitions: The case of the global campaign for education. *IDS Working Papers*, 2009(327), 01-43.
- Gehring, J. (2001). The International Baccalaureate: 'Cadillac' of college-prep programs. *Education Week*, 20(32), 19.

- Gillespie, R. (1993). *Manufacturing knowledge: a history of the Hawthorne experiments*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Global Citizen Diploma. (2015, January 1). Retrieved March 15, 2015, from <http://globalcitizendiploma.org/>.
- Global Citizenship Themes. (2014, January 1). Retrieved March 15, 2015, from schoolsonline.britishcouncil.org/programmes-and-funding/linking-programmes-worldwide/connecting-classrooms/partnerships/funding/global-citizenship-themes
- Golay, P.A. (2006). The effects of study abroad on the development of global-mindedness among students enrolled in international programs at Florida State University. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL.
- Gordon, E. (2013). Beyond participation: Designing for the civic web. *Journal of Digital and Media Literacy*, 1(1).
- Gottlieb, C. & Robinson, G., eds. (2002). *A practical guide for integrating civic responsibility into the curriculum*. Washington, DC: American Association of Community Colleges.
- Goucher College U.S. Model Senate. (2012). Goucher College US Model Senate Comments. Retrieved July 11, 2014, from <http://blogs.goucher.edu/modelsenate/>.
- Grant, C. A. (2016). Voices, not numbers: Towards a greater democracy in education. *Monthly Review*, 68(1), 35.
- Green, J.C. (2000). Understanding social Programs through Evaluation". In: Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, J.S. (eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues*, pp. 195-220. London: Sage.
- Guba, E. G. 1978. *Toward a methodology of naturalistic inquiry in educational evaluation*. Monograph 8. Los Angeles: UCLA Center for the Study of Evaluation.
- Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1989b). *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Gutmann, A. (1999). *Democratic education*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.
- Hahn, C. (2008, September 26). Creating international agreements that establish norms, standards, and practices for civic education: Reservations from a comparative perspective. *Future of Civic Education in the 21st Century conference*. Lecture conducted from Center for Civic Education, Montpelier, VA.
- Hahn, C. (2009, September 28). Turning points as civic teaching moments. *Turning points in civic education*. Lecture conducted from cCenter for Civic Education, Helmstedt, Germany.
- Hajdo, D. (1999). *National service and civic education: the potential of AmeriCorps' national civilian community corps to foster civic character*.
- Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. (1985). Assessing the instructional management behavior of principals. *The Elementary School Journal*, 86(2), 217-247.
- Hanser, L. M., & Robyn, A. E. (2000). *Implementing High School JROTC [Junior Reserve Officers Training Corps] Career Academies*. RAND, 1700 Main Street, PO Box 2138, Santa Monica, CA 90407-2138.
- Hanson, J. S. & Howe, K. (2011). The potential for deliberative democratic civic education. *Democracy & Education* 19(2), Article 3. Retrieved from <http://democracyeducationjournal.org/home/vol19/iss2/3/>
- Hart, D., Donnelly, T. M., Youniss, J., & Atkins, R. (2007). High school community service as a predictor of adult voting and volunteering. *American Educational Research Journal*, 44(1), 197-219.
- Hawkesworth, M. (1992). The science of politics and the politics of science. *Encyclopedia of Government and Politics*. London, New York: Routledge, 1, 5-39.
- Haynes, Charles C. (1994) Character education in the public schools. In *Finding common ground: A First Amendment guide to religion and public education*, edited by Charles C. Haynes. (pp. 132-137). Nashville, TN: Freedom Forum, First Amendment Center, ED 379 743.
- Heater, D. (2000). Does cosmopolitan thinking have a future? *Review of International Studies*, 26, 179-197.
- Held, D. (2002). The transformation of political community: Rethinking democracy in the context of globalisation. In N. Dower & J. Williams (Eds.), *Global citizenship: A critical introduction* (pp. 92-100). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Henderson, C. (2016). *Creating global citizens through Model United Nations* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University Honors College, Middle Tennessee State University).

- Henn, M., & Foard, N. (2014). Compulsory voting may reinforce the resentment young people feel toward the political class. *Democratic Audit Blog*. London School of Economics.
- Hett, E. J. (1993). *The development of an instrument to measure global-mindedness*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of San Diego.
- Hirsch, S. E. (2016). *Understanding the relationship between teacher and organizational intercultural competency in international schools: A mixed methods study* (Doctoral dissertation, University of San Francisco).
- Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *Journal of international business studies*, 14(2), 75-89.
- Hondagneu-Sotelo, P., & Raskoff, S. (1994). Community service-learning: Promises and problems. *Teaching Sociology*, 248-254.
- Huebner, A. J., Mancini, J. A., Bowen, G. L., & Orthner, D. K. (2009). Shadowed by war: Building community capacity to support military families. *Family Relations*, 58(2), 216-228.
- Indiana University, "What we can learn from high school students" (Bloomington, IN: High School Survey of Student Engagement, 2005). [Retrieved July 21st, 2006 from www.iub.edu/~nsse/hssse/pdf/hssse_2005_report.pdf].
- Installation Overview. (2014, January 1). Retrieved August 12, 2014, from http://apps.militaryonesource.mil/MOS/f?p=107:6:0::NO::P6_INST_ID:20173
- International Student Leadership Institute (2014). International student leadership institute. Retrieved July 2, 2014, from <http://isli-us.org/isli-us.org/Home.html>
- Jacoby, B. (1996). *Service-learning in higher education: concepts and practices. The Jossey-Bass higher and adult education series*. Jossey-Bass Publishers, 350 Sansome St., San Francisco, CA 94104.
- Jenness, D. (1990). *Making sense of social studies*. New York: Macmillan.
- JFCBS, History. (2014, January 1). Retrieved November 12, 2014, from <http://www.jfcbs.nato.int/jfcbrunssum/history.aspx>
- Johnson, C. (1984). Who is Aristotle's citizen? *Phronesis*:29, 73-90.
- Jones, M. G., Jones, B. D., Hardin, B., Chapman, L., Yarbrough, T., & Davis, M. (1999). The impact of high-stakes testing on teachers and students in North Carolina. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 81(3), 199-203.
- Kahne, J. E., & Sporte, S. E. (2008). Developing citizens: The impact of civic learning opportunities on students' commitment to civic participation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 45(3), 738-766.
- Kahne, J., & Middaugh, E. 2008. "High quality civic education: What is it and who gets it?" *Social Education* 72: 34-39.
- Kahne, J. & Westheimer, J. (2014). Teaching democracy. *Social Studies Curriculum*, The Purposes, Problems, and Possibilities, 353.
- Kaiser, A. (1997). Types of democracy from classical to new institutionalism. *Journal of Theoretical Politics*, 9(4), 419-444.
- Karras, J. N. (2016). The effects of data-driven learning upon vocabulary acquisition for secondary international school students in Vietnam. *ReCALL*, 28(02), 166-186.
- Kelm, J. L., & McIntosh, K. (2012). Effects of school-wide positive behavior support on teacher self-efficacy. *Psychology in the Schools*, 49(2), 137-147.
- Kennedy, K. J. (2012). Global trends in civic and citizenship education: What are the lessons for nation states?. *Education Sciences*, 2(3), 121-135.
- Kidwell, F.L. (2013). Civic education for a global world. In Proceedings of the Tutzing Forum: Political Didactics International Conference, Tutzing, Germany, 14-19 April 2013.
- Klofstad, C. A. (2009). Civic talk and civic participation The moderating effect of individual predispositions. *American Politics Research*, 37(5), 856-878.
- Kingston, T. S. (2002). What can Department of Defense schools teach us about school reform? *Journal of Education*, 183(1), 58-67.
- Kiousis, S., McDevitt, M., & Wu, X. (2005). The genesis of civic awareness: Agenda setting in political socialization. *Journal of Communication*, 55(4), 756-774.

- Kirlin, M. (2006). Creating engaged citizens: Civic skills and civic education. *Center for Civic Education*, 1, 1-4.
- Kuhn, H. (2006). European approaches to civic education. *Center for Civic Education*, 1, 1-14.
- Lane, J. E. (2005). *Globalization and politics: promises and dangers*. Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.
- Lawlor, K. B., & Hornyak, M. J. (2012). SMART goals: How the application of SMART goals can contribute to achievement of student learning outcomes. *Developments in Business Simulations and Experiential Learning*, 39(12), 259-267.
- Leming, J. S. (2000). Tell me a story: An evaluation of a literature-based character education programme. *Journal of Moral Education*, 29(4), 413-427.
- Lichtenstein, A. H., & Ludwig, D. S. (2010). Bring back home economics education. *Jama*, 303(18), 1857-1858.
- Lijadi, A. A., & Van Schalkwyk, G. J. (2016). "The international schools are not so international after all": The educational experiences of Third Culture Kids. *International Journal of School & Educational Psychology*, 1-12.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2013). *The constructivist credo*. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.
- Lipset, S. M., Trow, M. A., & Coleman, J. S. (1956). *Union democracy: The internal politics of the international typographical union*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Lochner, L. (2011). *Non-production benefits of education: Crime, health, and good citizenship* (No. w16722). National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Marshall, C. Rossman. 1995. *Designing qualitative research*. Sage Publications, London
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2010). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage Publications, London
- Marquette H. 2007. Civic Education for combating corruption: lessons from Hong Kong and the US donor-funded programmes in poor countries. *Public Administration and Development* 27(3): 239-249.
- Mason, T. (2006). Civic education in emerging democracies. *Center for Civic Education*, 1, 1-20.
- Mason, T., and G. Delandshere 2010 citizens not research subjects: Toward a more democratic civic education inquiry methodology. *Interamerican Journal of Education for Democracy* 3(1):6-26.
- Merriam, S.B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- McBride, A. M., Sherraden, M., Benítez, C., & Johnson, E. (2004). Civic service worldwide: Defining a field, building a knowledge base. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 33(4 suppl), 8S-21S.
- McConnell, T. (2007). The civic mission of our nation's Schools. *Social Studies Review-Roseville-*, 46(2), 06.
- McGuire, S. (2010). Political socialization, young adults and civic engagement. *San Francisco State University*.
- Metzger, A., & Smetana, J. G. (2009). Adolescent civic and political engagement: associations between domain-specific judgments and behavior. *Child development*, 80(2), 433-441.
- Meyers, N. M., & Nulty, D. D. (2009). How to use (five) curriculum design principles to align authentic learning environments, assessment, students' approaches to thinking and learning outcomes. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 34(5), 565-577.
- Mill, J.S. 1962. *Essays on politics and culture*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.
- Mitchell, T. D. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 14(2).
- Mongabay.com. Population of Geilenkirchen, Germany. (2012, September 6). Retrieved October 12, 2014, from <http://population.mongabay.com/population/germany/2921837/geilenkirchen>
- Mongabay.com. Population of Brunssum, Netherlands. (2010, January 29). Retrieved September 15, 2014, from <http://population.mongabay.com/population/netherlands/2758174/brunssum>

- Monitor, I. C. E. F. (2014). New data on international schools suggests continued strong growth. Retrieved from <http://monitor.icef.com/2014/03/new-data-oninternational-schools-suggests-continued-strong-growth-2/>
- Morley, D. (2000) *Home territories: Media, mobility and identity*. London: Routledge.
- Myers, J. P. (2006). Rethinking the social studies curriculum in the context of globalization: Education for global citizenship in the US. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, 34(3), 370-394.
- Narvaez, D., Bock, T., Endicott, L., & Lies, J. M. (2004). Minnesota's community voices and character education project. *Journal of Research in Character Education*, 2(2), 89.
- NATO AWACS - Organizations. (2014, January 1). Retrieved August 12, 2014, from <http://e3a.nato.int/eng/html/organizations/history.htm>
- National Education Association of the United States. Commission on the reorganization of secondary education. (1928). *Cardinal principles of secondary education: A report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education* (No. 35). Govt. print. off.
- Nelson, T. H., LeBard, L., & Waters, C. (2010). How to create a professional learning community. *Science and Children*, 47(9), 36-40.
- Niemi, R. G., & Smith, J. (2001). Enrollments in high school government classes: Are we short-changing both citizenship and political science training?. *Political Science & Politics*, 34(2), 281-287.
- Niemi, R. G., & Junn, J. (2005). *Civic education: What makes students learn*. Yale University Press.
- Nieto, S. (2004). *Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Noddings, N. (1997). Character education and community. In A. Molnar (Ed.), *The construction of children's character* (pp. 1-16). Chicago & Great Britain: NSSE : Distributed by the University of Chicago Press.
- Noddings, N. (2013). *Caring: A relational approach to ethics and moral education*. University of California Press.
- O'Grady, C. R. (Ed.). (2014). *Integrating service learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Omo-Abu, A. (1997). *Ethnic cleavages and national integration: the impact of the national youth service corps in Nigeria* (Doctoral dissertation, Doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, 1997). Dissertation Abstracts International, 58).
- Owen, D., Soule, S., Nairne, J., Chalif, R., House, K. and Davidson, M. (2011). "Civic education and social media use," *Electronic Media & Politics*, 1 (1): 1-28
- Oxley, L., & Morris, P. (2013). Global citizenship: A typology for distinguishing its multiple conceptions. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 61(3), 301-325.
- Paoletti Phillips, D. T. (2006). *Fueling the fire: A phenomenological exploration of student experiences in democratic civic education* (Doctoral dissertation), University of Maryland.
- Parker, W. C. (Ed.). (1996). *Educating the democratic mind*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Parker-Gwin, R., & Mabry, J. B. (1998). Service learning as pedagogy and civic education: Comparing outcomes for three models. *Teaching Sociology*, 276-291.
- Pasek, J., Feldman, L., Romer, D., & Jamieson, K. H. (2008). Schools as incubators of democratic participation: Building long-term political efficacy with civic education. *Applied Development Science*, 12(1), 26-37.
- Patrick, J. (2006). Human rights in civic education. *Center for Civic Education*, 1, 1-15.
- Patrick, J. (2008, September 22). Three themes of civic education for liberty in democracy. *Future of Civic Education in the 21st Century*. Lecture conducted from Center for Civic Education, Orange, VA.
- Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pennington, K. (2014). Creating a visionary commons for global education. *The Ohio Social Studies Review*, 51(1).
- Perry, J. L., & Katula, M. C. (2001). Does service affect citizenship? *Administration & Society*, 33(3), 330-365.
- Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook and classification* (Vol. 1). Washington, DC: Oxford University Press.

- Peterson, J., Tocci, N., & Alcaro, R. (2012). *Multipolarity and transatlantic relations* (No. 1). Transworld Working Papers
- Pondiscio, R. (2016, November 22). Now or never for civic education. Retrieved December 29, 2016, from <http://www.usnews.com/opinion/knowledge-bank/articles/2016-11-22/donald-trumps-election-is-civic-educations-gut-check>.
- Putnam, R. (1995). Bowling alone. *Journal of Democracy*, 6(1), 65-78.
- Rapoport, A. (2009, April). Patriotic education in Russia: Stylistic move or a sign of substantive counter-reform?. In *The Educational Forum* (Vol. 73, No. 2, pp. 141-152). Taylor & Francis Group.
- Reysen, S., & Katzarska-Miller, I. (2013). A model of global citizenship: Antecedents and outcomes. *International Journal of Psychology*, 48(5), 858-870.
- Robison, R. E. (1998). Creating a compelling rationale for middle and high school immersion programs. In C. Klee, A. Lynch, E. Tyrone (eds.) *Research and practice in immersion education: Looking back and looking ahead* (pp. 57-64). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, CARLA.
- Richter, D. (Director) (2006, September 24). A review of research: What do we know about civic education in classrooms in germany? *German-American Conference*. Lecture conducted from Center for Civic Education, Denver, USA.
- Rossmann, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (2012). *Learning in the field—an introduction to qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ryan, K. (1996). Character education in the United States. *Journal for a Just and Caring Education*, 2(1), 75-84.
- Sax, L. J. (2004). Citizenship development and the American college student. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 2004(122), 65-80.
- Schaffer, E., Berman, S., Pickeral, T. & Holman, E. (2001). Service-learning and character education: One plus one is more than two. Issue paper. Education Commission of the States, Denver, CO.
- Schmoker, M. (2004). Tipping point: From feckless reform to substantive instructional improvement. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 85(6), 424-432.
- Schneider, D. (1994). *Expectations of excellence: Curriculum standards for social studies*. Bulletin 89. National Council for the Social Studies, 3501 Newark St., NW, Washington, DC 20016.
- Schoeman, S. (2005). Educating democratic minds in South African public schools: African teachers' perceptions of good citizenship. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 275-286.
- Schuh, J. H., & Laverty, M. (1983). The perceived long-term influence of holding a significant student leadership position. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 24(1): 28-32.
- Schulz, W. (2009). Questionnaire construct validation in the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study. IERI Monograph Series: Issues and Methodologies in LargeScale Assessments, 2, 113–135.
- Schulz, W., Ainley, J., & Fraillon, J. (2011). *ICCS 2009 technical report*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Seashore Louis, K., Dretzke, B., & Wahlstrom, K. (2010). How does leadership affect student achievement? Results from a national US survey. *School effectiveness and school improvement*, 21(3), 315-336.
- Selby, D. (1994). Kaleidoscopic mindset: New meanings within citizenship education. *Global Education—Global Literacy*, 2, 20-31.
- Septiono, W., & Kunst, A. E. (2016). The association of tobacco control policy with trends in smoking in 33 provinces of Indonesia. *The European Journal of Public Health*, 26(suppl 1), 174-152.
- Sherraden, M., Sherraden, M.S., & Eberly, D. (1990). Comparing and understanding nonmilitary service in different nations. In D. Eberly & M. Sherraden (Eds.), *The moral equivalent of war: A study of non-military service in nine nations*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Sherraden, M. (2001). *Youth service as strong policy*. Working paper. St. Louis, MO: Washington University, Center for Social Development.
- Sherrod, L. R., Flanagan, C., & Youniss, J. (2002). Dimensions of citizenship and opportunities for youth development: The what, why, when, where, and who of citizenship development. *Applied Developmental Science*, 6(4), 264-272.

- Sherrod, L., Torney-Purta, J., & Flanagan, C. (2010). *Handbook of research on civic engagement in youth*. Hoboken.
- Shklar J. 1991. *American citizenship: The quest for inclusion*. Harvard University Press: Cambridge, MA.
- Shrestha, L. E., & Heisler, E. J. (2012). *The changing demographic profile of the United States*. congressional research service. 2011.
- Smith, M. A. (2000). A marriage that worked: The Department of Defense Dependents Schools and the national writing project. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 81(8), 622-24.
- Smrekar, C. E., & Owens, D. E. (2003). "It's a way of life for us": High mobility and high achievement in Department of Defense Schools. *Journal of Negro Education*, 165-177.
- Snyder, R. C. (2003). The citizen-soldier tradition and gender integration of the US military. *Armed Forces & Society*, 29(2), 185-204.
- Soule, S. (2008, September 26). Adapting civic education to new opportunities: What changes are underway in the US? What innovations might we make to best practices in the future? *The future of civic education in the 21st century*. Lecture conducted from Center for Civic Education, Montpelier, VA.
- Srikala, B., & Kumar, K. (2010). Empowering adolescents with life skills education in schools- school mental health program: Does it work? *Indian Journal of Psychiatry*, 52, 344-350.
- Staff Report. (2012, February 22). Army.mil, The official homepage of the United States Army. Seminar shapes new generation of leaders. Retrieved July 11, 2014, from http://www.army.mil/article/74224/Seminar_shapes_new_generation_of_leaders/
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Starr, L. (1999). *Is character education the answer?* Retrieved January, 13, 2009, from http://www.educationworld.com/a_admin/admin/admin097.shtml
- Stordy, P. H. (2012). *Undergraduates' Internet Literacies*. The University of Sheffield, UK.
- Sundberg, E. (2008). *Deliberative civic education and student civic engagement*. ProQuest.
- Syvrtsen, A. K., Stout, M. D., Flanagan, C. A., Mitra, D. L., Oliver, M. B., & Sundar, S. S. (2009). Using elections as teachable moments: A randomized evaluation of the student voices civic education program. *American Journal of Education*, 116(1), 33-67.
- Takacs, S. (1999). Alien-nation: immigration, national identity and transnationalism. *Cultural Studies*, 13(4), 591-620.
- Taylor, M. (Ed.). (2002). *Critical approach to media in civic education: Final report*. Council of Europe. 124-130.
- Theiss-Morse, E., & Hibbing, J. R. (2005). Citizenship and civic engagement. *Annual . Review of Political Science.*, 8, 227-249.
- Thompson DF. 1970. *The democratic citizen: Social science and democratic theory in the Twentieth Century*. London: Cambridge.
- Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Oswald, H., & Schulz, W. (2001). *Citizenship and education in twenty-eight countries: Civic knowledge and engagement at age fourteen*. IEA Secretariat, Herengracht 487, 1017 BT, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- Torney-Purta, J. (2002). Patterns in the civic knowledge, engagement, and attitudes of European adolescents: The IEA civic education study. *European Journal of Education*, 37(2), 129-141.
- Toros, E. (2010). The relationship between Islam and democracy in Turkey: Employing political culture as an indicator. *Social indicators research*, 95(2), 253-265.
- Tournier, V. (2009). Attitudes toward citizenship and political participation: A comparative analysis. *Civic Education and Youth Political Participation*, 61-84.
- Tufte, T., & Mefalopulos, P. (2009). *Participatory communication: A practical guide* (Vol. 170). World Bank Publications.
- United Nations, MUNDA - Cyberschoolbus - UN (2001). *UN News Center*. Retrieved July 3, 2014, from <http://www.un.org/Pubs/CyberSchoolBus/munmore.htm>
- United States Army Garrison Benelux-Schinnen, Netherlands. (2014, January 1). Retrieved November 12, 2014, from http://www.militaryinstallations.dod.mil/MOS/f?p=132:CONTENT:0::NO::P4_INST_ID,P4_INST_TYPE:3370,INSTALLATION

- Van Der Bly, M. C. (2007). Globalization and the rise of one heterogeneous world culture a microperspective of a global village. *International journal of comparative sociology*, 48(2-3), 234-256.
- Vogel D., Leiprecht R. (2006). Politis—Building Europe with new citizens? An inquiry into the civic participation of naturalised citizens and foreign residents in 25 countries (Final report and country reports). *University of Oldenburg*. Retrieved from <http://www.uni-oldenburg.de/politis-europe/9810.html>.
- Walling, D. (2007). The return of civic education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 89(4), 285-289.
- Williams, M., & May, T. (1996). *Introduction to the philosophy of social research*. London: UCL Press.
- Winerup, M. (2011). Military children stay a step ahead of public school students. *New York Times*. December 12, P. A14.
- Westheimer, J., & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. *American educational research journal*, 41(2), 237-269.
- Woyach, R. B. (1993). *Preparing for leadership: A young adult's guide to leadership skills in a global age*. Greenwood Publishing Group, 88 Post Road West, Box 5007, Westport, CT 06881.
- Yang, S. & Chung, T. (2009). Experimental study of teaching critical thinking in civic education in Taiwanese junior high school. *British Journal of Psychology*, 79, 29-55.
- Yin, R. K., & Davis, D. (2007). Adding new dimensions to case study evaluations: The case of evaluating comprehensive reforms. *New directions for evaluation*, 2007(113), 75-93.
- Yin, R. K. (2008). *Case study research: Design and methods (applied social research methods)*. London: Sage Publications Inc.
- Yin, R. K. (2013). *Case study research: design and methods* (5th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2013). Validity and generalization in future case study evaluations. *Evaluation*, 19(3), 321-332.
- Zlotkowski, E. (1998). *Successful service-learning programs. new models of excellence in higher education*. Anker Publishing Company, Inc. 176 Ballville Road, PO Box 249, Bolton, MA 01740-0249.

Appendix A - Interview Questions

Interview questions directorate/administrators

Primary question	Follow-up question
How would you define civic education?	
How would you describe the civic education program?	
What are some of the intended and unintended outcomes of the civic education program?	What are some strengths? What are some opportunities as evidenced by the outcomes?
If you could design a civic education program, how would that look?	
How does the school administration influence the civic education program?	

Interview questions teachers

Primary question	Follow-up question
How would you define civic education?	
How would you describe the civic education program?	
What do you hope the program will accomplish for students, staff and society?	What are some strengths? What are some opportunities as evidenced by the outcomes?
If you could design a civic education program, how would that look?	

Interview questions students

Primary question	Follow-up question
How would you describe the civic education program?	

Tell me about your experience in the civic education program at your international school.	What did you learn? In what activities did you participate? In what activities do you regret not participating? What are some strengths and opportunities for the program?
In what ways has the civic education program influenced your civic engagement in society?	

Appendix B - Letter to interviewees

Letters to Interviewees

Introductory Letter - First Contact with Participant

Date

Christopher Swift

Oranjobloesem 34

Best, 5682CR

<participant's address>

Dear <participant's name>,

I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Minnesota, and I am conducting research on the perceptions that administrators, teachers, and students have on the civic education program at an international school. By exploring the experiences of those who were involved in this program, I hope to provide insights about the effect of a civics education program on present and past international school students. I ask that you participate in this study based on your experiences with the civic education program.

Your participation would entail an interview (in person, electronically or by phone) lasting approximately one hour. I also ask that you agree to respond to any follow-up interview questions that may take place in person, electronically or by phone.

I will contact you either by phone, E-mail or in person in the next couple of days in order to schedule an interview and receive your final consent. Interviews that cannot take place in person will be conducted over the telephone or electronic program such as Skype, Lync or Google Hangout. All interviews will be recorded. The recordings will be destroyed after the publishing of my study. Information gained from the interviews will be used in my dissertation. Your name will not be identified. The Institutional Review Board at the University of Minnesota and DoDEA have approved this study.

Thank you for considering my invitation to participate in this study. If you would like to contact me regarding any questions or concerns you might have, please feel free to call me at 0031-(0)45-5278260 or email me at swift080@umn.edu.

I look forward to speaking with you soon.

Sincerely,

Mr. Christopher Swift

Appendix C- Consent Form

The International School: The Evaluation of an International Environment on Civic Education

Consent Form

Please read this document and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study. The researcher is Christopher Swift, who is a doctoral candidate in the Department of Organizational Leadership, Policy and Development at the University of Minnesota.

You are invited to be in a research study of the civic education program at a DoDEA international school. Administrators, teachers and graduated students are being sought to give their perspectives about the curriculum and extra-curricular activities. You were selected as a possible participant because you have been identified as someone who may provide insights about the civic education program at this international school.

Background Information:

Research suggests that there is a lack of civic engagement among youth. Concerns have arisen because lack of engagement has been cited as a reason students drop out of school and fail to develop community knowledge. Particular curricular reforms have been increasingly emphasized in recent years to promote civic education throughout the world. There are many other forces causing for change in how civic education is taught and viewed. For example globalization and mass migration is causing for the demographics in nations to change. This brings into question how a citizen is viewed within his or her national boundaries and how the society wishes to define their citizens. While this study does not attempt to define these changes, it does attempt to find how present national civic education curricula intermingle in a single learning environment at the international school. Therefore, the purpose of this qualitative case study is to discover teacher, graduated student and administrator perceptions of the civic education program at an international school in the Netherlands. The proposed research project has virtually no risks to participants and has potential benefits. The benefits include the possible addition to the knowledge base related to civic understanding and to what effect an international environment has on civic education for students at this international school.

Procedure: you will be asked to do the following things during this study:

If you agree to be in this study, I ask that you do the following things:

- ❖ Participate in a recorded interview (preferably in person through electronic means or over the phone) by providing answers to a series of questions. Interview length is partly dependent on the length of your answers; however, most interviews should last about one hour. You will be asked questions surrounding your impressions of the civic education program at the international school (see definition below).

- 🚩 The **international school civic education program** is defined as a number of curricula and extra-curricular activities at the school. This is not a defined program, but one that is the combination of many different learning opportunities. The following are all a part of the program: At the secondary section of the international school, there are a number of

civic related courses: U.S. History, U.S. History (AP), U.S. Government, U.S. Government (AP), Canadian History, Civics (Canadian), Canadian Geography, World Issues (A Geographic Analysis), Travel and Tourism (A Geographic Perspective), Street Law, Honors World History 9 and 10 and Junior Reserve Officers Training Core (level I through IV). There are also many extra-curricular opportunities for students such as Model United Nations, Model European Parliament, Model Harvard Congress Europe, Comenius Project, International Student Leadership Institute, Junior Leadership Seminar and sports events with local national teams.

- ❖ Agree to any follow-up interview questions (in person, electronically or by phone) that might develop based on your answers to the interview questions. I do not expect these questions to arise, but it could be that more data would be relevant to the study.

Information Regarding Publishing of the Study:

Findings will be reported in a research report in the form of a dissertation for the University of Minnesota. Findings may also be submitted for publication.

Risks of Being in the Study:

No risks are foreseen to you other than a possible breach of confidentiality. To guard against this risk, pseudonyms/aliases will be used for personal names. You will only be identified in the study by an alias or by your position in the study and in a letter format. For example, if you were a former student, then you would be referred to as Alumnus A, Alumnus B and so on.

Administrators would be Administrator A, Administrator B and so on. Teachers would be Teacher A, Teacher B and so on.

As to the benefits of participating in this study, there are few identified such as an understanding of international cultures at the international school. In addition, some people find participating in an interview to be beneficial because it gives them a chance to reflect on issues that matter to them. Information provided may be used to help inform those who work in education to develop improved instruction.

Confidentiality:

Any personal information that may reveal your identity will be kept secret or anonymous, such as your name, etc. Interview records, research notes, and interview transcriptions will be stored on the researcher's hard drive in a folder that is password protected. The computer will also have a password. Interview recordings will only be analyzed for transcription. The transcriber (if other than the researcher) will agree to not disclose any information from the transcriptions, and s/he will share the typed transcriptions only with the researcher. At the completion of the research project, all interview recordings and any identifying information will be destroyed.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

You have the ultimate right to deny participating in this study or to withdraw from this study after you have agreed to participate at any time of your choice during the study. You also have the right not to answer those questions posed by the researcher that you do not feel comfortable with.

Contacts and Questions:

You may ask any questions you have or if you have any question later please feel free to contact Mr. Christopher Swift at 0031-(0)45-5278260 or e-mail at swift080@umn.edu. This study has been approved by the University of Minnesota, Department of Organizational Leadership, Policy and Development. It has also been approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Minnesota. The researcher's advisor is Dr. D. Magnusson. She can be reached at (612) 626-9647 or magnu002@umn.edu for questions regarding this study.

If you have any questions regarding this study and you would like to talk with someone other than the researcher or advisor, contact Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware Street Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 55455, telephone (612) 625-1650.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. If I had questions, I have asked them and received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature_____Date _____

Signature of Investigator or Person Obtaining Consent:

Signature_____Date _____

Figure 2 - School Power Structure

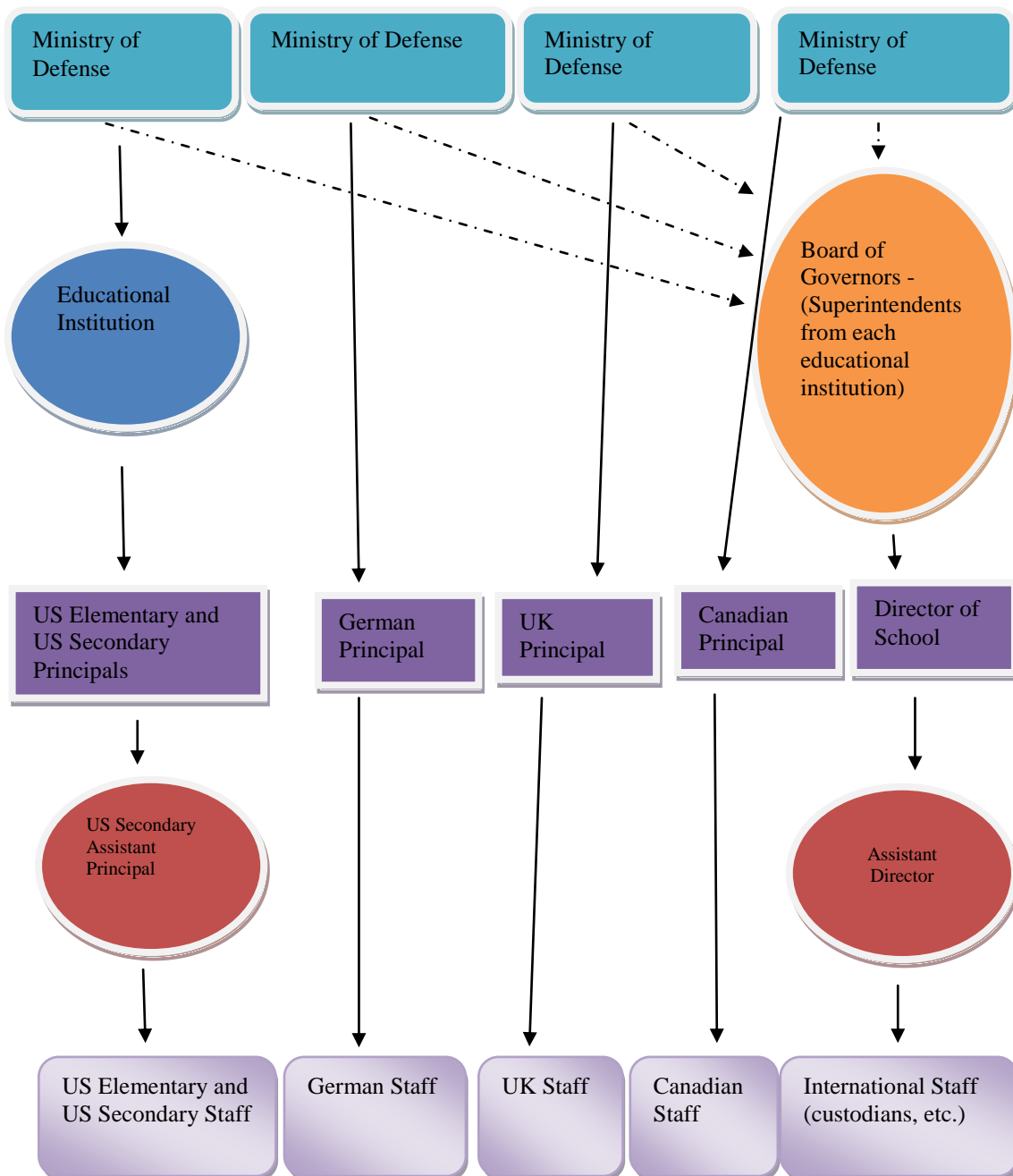


Figure 3 - Conceptual Framework